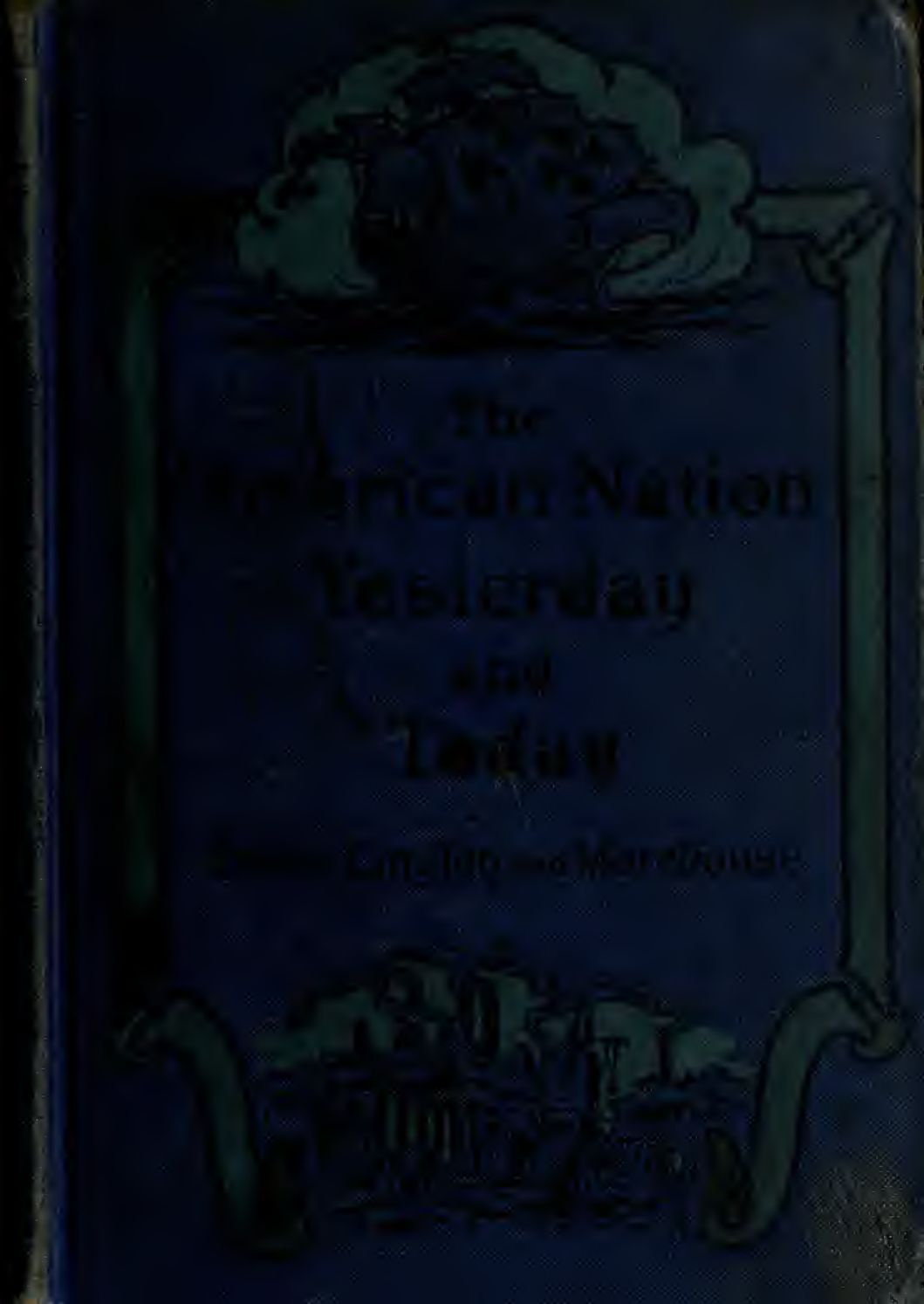

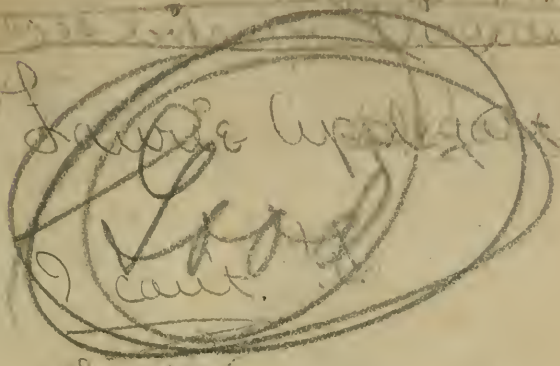

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Henry Clay

Tuesday

REPORT TOMORROW

The end of the war

The surrender of Lee to Grant.

every day I read 10 pages in my history book and write down what I learn to report tomorrow.

Property of Mary Lord Penhallow

New Hampshire Royal Province

Charter - Mass. Rhode I. Connect.

Copied

1775

The American Nation Yesterday and Today

From a painting by F. C. Yohn

The picture opposite this page symbolizes the passing of the Indian and his older civilization, and the coming of the new day. In the lowest foreground are seen the Aztec, the earliest-known American Indian, the primitive North American Indian wearing skins but no ornament, and the colonial-period Indian, with ornaments of quill-work and feathers in his hair. Above them the Plains Indian, the last to give way before the march of civilization, turns to see a vision of coming years before he follows his brothers. At his feet lie his quiver of arrows and his bow, showing his submission, and in his arms he holds the pipe of peace. He is wearing his ceremonial feather bonnet, denoting his pride of race

On the right the pioneer, dressed in buckskins, rides into the rich green fields of the new country. He is followed by the ox-drawn covered wagon, in which ride the pioneer mother and child. Following this the stagecoach, the river steamer, the express train, and the airplane come in their turn. In the background the towers and smokestacks of industry and the modern city, rising in a pyramid, are the symbols of strength and solidarity. Back of it all are the brilliant rays of a rising sun, which sheds the rays of enlightenment

Why does the smoke from the river boat look so different from that of the train? Can you find any other interesting details in the picture? Why is it entitled "The American Nation Yesterday and Today"?

THE · TRYON · AND · LINGLEY · HISTORY · SERIES

The American Nation Yesterday *and* Today

BY

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The Authors to their Book

Build them a bridge of understanding thought
To This and Now, from days that long have been.
Show them the goodly thing our fathers wrought,
And flood with light the paths that have been dim.

That they, with purpose clear and confident song
May build the bridge from Now to Far Away,
To something yet more noble, fair, and strong
Than ever the fathers dreamed it in their day.

Foreword to Teachers

This book is based on Tryon and Lingley's *American People and Nation* and does not differ from it in principle or method; but it does readjust the proportion of attention in answer to a demand from many educators and teachers for a book placing more emphasis upon recent periods of American history. The European background is omitted, and the earlier periods are more briefly treated than in the previous book. The authors feel that nothing essential to an understanding of the nation at the present day has been omitted from this book. The dividing point between the more remotely causal early events and the more immediately causal later events has been put after the Civil War rather than before it.

Like *The American People and Nation,* this is a book for upper-elementary and junior-high-school grades. Its title was chosen to fit the content of the book, which attempts to do two things: to tell a true story of the permanently significant facts of American history which children of this age can understand and to explain those facts of yesterday as they created the United States of today — to show the vital and causal relations of the nation's past to its present character, work, and problems. For this reason the treatment is that of group biography, leading the pupils to see that people similar to those who now guide the destiny of the nation made it what it is today. The men and women who made a movement must always be more interesting to children than the abstract movement itself. If in leading the class discussions of their pupils the teachers will put a similar emphasis upon the human, creative element in the nation's story, it is believed that greater vividness, and therefore a greater

mastery of the subject, can be attained than if "abolition" or "expansion" or "conservation" be discussed.

To accomplish its objects a combination of the chronological and topical methods of organization has been used. The large divisions are arranged in chronological order. Within each of the large divisions the study units are treated as topics. The material comprised in each study unit is presented topically. Care has been taken to present the topics in a provocative, or challenging, form, thus encouraging the student to attack the material from the problematic angle, but at the same time leaving him free to organize the problem in his own manner.

The General Organization. The book has no divisions called parts or chapters. Instead of these much-used terms, "Divisions" and "Units" and "Topics" have been employed. The whole story is divided into seven chronological divisions, each division into two or more units, each unit into two or more topics, and each topic into a number of headings. The various sections vary in difficulty from very short and easy ones at the beginning of the book to fairly long and much more complex ones further on. If the teacher avails herself wisely of these variations in difficulty, a great deal of valuable training and testing may be had from them. It is believed that with such a framework, consistently used throughout the book, the student will be able always to keep his bearings and to see his way clearly through the story.

The Forewords and Frontispieces. Another device to aid the student in taking the first step in approaching a body of material to be assimilated is the use made of the forewords and frontispieces. There is a foreword for the book as a whole, a foreword for each division, and a foreword for each unit. There are also frontispieces (one for the book as a whole and one for each division). The frontispieces and the forewords are both essential parts of the book, because they

furnish stimuli needed to create mental attitudes necessary to the early stages of the learning process.

The Libraries and Tables of Contents. Two other devices are employed to assist the student in gaining his first general impression of the field as a whole and of each division of the field. One of these is the reference and story-book libraries for the entire field and for each division. In glancing over the titles of the books in the two libraries at the beginning of a division, the student will get a general notion of the kinds of material that are available for the mastery of the division as a whole or some of its units.

The other device is the table of contents for the book as a whole and for each division. The general framework for the intellectual structure that the student is to build is supplied by these tables of contents. They are guidance outlines, which show him the chief landmarks in the road over which he is to travel. With the libraries and the tables of contents at his command, he is well equipped to enter the next stage of the learning process. Here he seeks details which illustrate and clarify the generalizations that have been set before him.

Study for Mastery. In reaching the mastery stage of any particular division the student is expected to read and re-read the material presented by the authors. The first reading ought to be done by units. Later the units ought to be read by topics, and finally the topics by headings. By such a procedure a clear-cut and well-organized body of material can be built up in the student's mind. When the time comes to read by topics, the projects and activities which follow each topic ought to be introduced. Mastery of ideas comes through mastery of words, and the teacher's insistence on word-learning and on class use of new words found in the text will build up actual mastery of the story. The vocabulary of this book has been subjected to scientific

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test by graded word lists, and most of its words are easily within the vocabulary of average pupils of Grades VII and VIII. Where words are more advanced they are technical words necessary to an understanding of the story, and should be learned. It will be noticed also that there is some advance in the difficulty of words as the book goes on. As a further test of mastery the exercises found at the close of each division should be completed. These are standards of attainment to be reached before leaving a division. They are an aid to the student in his final step of re-thinking the material of the division in terms of some of its important phases.

Optional Use of the Libraries and how they were Compiled. The library equipment which the main body of the book contains is an integral part of it. Although the text may be used successfully without a single book suggested in the libraries, some or all of these books ought to be accessible if possible. Their appearance at the beginning of each division should not deter anyone from using the text; for even if they are not read at all, the mere knowledge of their existence is worth something. This is especially true because of the objective rule applied in selecting the titles. The method of procedure in compiling them was as follows: first, a list which comprised about three thousand titles was made from books suggested in graded lists found in textbooks and courses of study in American history for Grades VII and VIII — lists especially compiled by public libraries, by state departments of education, and by the American Library Association. From this long roll of possible books a shorter list was made on the basis of frequency of mention. Provided with this shorter list, one of the authors visited the juvenile department of four large libraries. With the aid of the librarians in these departments he was able to check actual demand for each book against the other methods that had given it its place on the list. When the final lists were made

up in this manner, they were checked against those found in *Children's Reading*, by Terman and Lima; *Winnetka Graded Book List*, by Washburn and Vogel; and *Graded List of Books for Children*, by the Elementary School Library Committee of the National Education Association.

Reviews, Projects, and Enrichments. The exercises given are of three kinds: those that may be done with no material other than that furnished by the text, those that require material outside the text, and those for which material is given in the exercises themselves. They also do three things, all calculated to deepen and broaden the mastery of the story: they fix by review, usually through a somewhat different arrangement of associations than that given in the text; they suggest a project which will force the pupil to think and do; and they enrich and ramify by deeper, wider, more colorful detail. The titles of exercises vary according to their content, and the wise teacher will still further vary them according to the needs and abilities of individual classes and pupils.

Provisions for Concreteness, Objectivity, and Reality. In order to make the presentation concrete, objective, and real, the authors have employed all the means at their command. When possible, imagery-suggesting words have been used instead of abstract terms; descriptions have been made as vivid and real as possible. Illustrations have been selected that aim to do more than merely adorn: they play their part in making the past of our country actual and real. The legends accompanying the pictures form an integral enrichment of the story. The maps, charts, graphs, and other concrete aids have all been included with a view to assisting the student in the process of assimilating the material in the text and also that which he may bring in from other sources.

The Appendixes. Finally, it should be said that the appendixes are likewise an important part of the text. Con-

taining as they do the two most important documents in the history of our nation and many interesting facts about each state and each president, they are not unimportant, although they appear where they do. References to both the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States are made again and again in the body of the text. By this repeated reference to them, their importance is held before the student. From the discussion of its adoption to the close of the book the Constitution is held to be the supreme law of the land, worthy of the support and respect of all loyal Americans.

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Foreword

If we could have lived from 1492 to the present day and could have watched the development of the United States, we should have seen a marvelous story unfold before our eyes.

In 1492 we should have seen the Atlantic shore with no cities or dwellings to break the forest which bordered it. We should have seen three small shiploads of men sail toward it, and many an expedition explore it. Then we should have seen people come to live on these shores; and we should have watched them build their houses, till the soil, push back the Indians, cut down the forests, move westward to the interior, fight wars for their country, found cities, cut roads through the woods and across the plains, throw bridges over the great rivers, climb the Western mountains, run railways to the Pacific coast, and start schools and factories and churches and newspapers. And we should have watched our grandfathers and our fathers and at last ourselves come into the story and become a part of American history.

In the following pages we shall watch the stream of events from the time when America was a great continent covered with trees and grassy plains, and inhabited by Indians, to the time when we ourselves became a part of the United States and began to have a share in its history.

Two Twelve-Book Libraries

I. A Classroom Reference Library

Below are twelve books which contain useful and interesting accounts of persons, things, events, and movements connected with the history of our country. They contain material on every one of the seven divisions of this book. Some of them may well be in constant use while a study of each division is being made. Many of them are referred to repeatedly throughout this book.

The books given in the library lists in this book are all in print at the time of its publication. The authors wish to call the attention of teachers, however, to the many excellent books no longer to be bought in the open market, but still in the public or the school library to which pupils have access. Teachers should ascertain the available material at hand and use this material along with the newer books listed here.

1. *Young People's History of the United States*, by Lucy L. Barber. Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1921.

An easy-to-read treatment of many important topics in our country's history. A colored picture on almost every other page.

2. *The Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States*, by E. C. Brooks. Rand McNally & Company, 1911.

Contains material on the coming of the factory to America, how cotton changed the South, life and activities in the South just before the Civil War, and other topics of interest and importance. Many illustrations.

3. *The Story of Corn and the Westward Migration*, by E. C. Brooks. Rand McNally & Company, 1916.

Good accounts of the opening and the settling of the great corn country; of steamboats, canals, railroads; of the last American frontier; and of a number of other important topics. Contains several excellent pictures and a few maps.

4. *The History of the United States and its People*, by Edward Eggleston. D. Appleton and Company, 1921.

Sixty-five valuable chapters which treat almost every phase of our country's history. Contains an abundance of maps and pictures.

5. *America First — One Hundred Stories from our History*, by L. B. Evans. Milton Bradley Company, 1920.

Interesting and well-told stories covering our history from Leif the Lucky to the exploits of Sergeant York. Stories that one wants to read again and again. A few valuable illustrations.

6. *Real Stories from Our History*, by John T. Faris. Ginn and Company, 1916.

Forty-three stories which give the reader a sense of reality. Many extracts from letters, journals, diaries, and personal accounts from the pens of those who took part in the events they narrate. Excellent illustrations.

7. *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard. The University Publishing Company, 1912.

The story of the great West from the time of Coronado. Interesting accounts of early explorers, fur-traders, great trails, missions, gold discoveries, cowboys, and railroads. Many first-class pictures and a few good maps.

8. *The Story of the United States*, by Marie L. Herdman. Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1916.

A straightforward story of the rise and growth of the United States. Contains twelve full-page illustrations in color.

9. *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan. The Macmillan Company, 1924.

Fresh, interesting, and somewhat gossipy accounts of our presidents.

10. *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by A. H. Sanford. D. C. Heath & Co., 1916.

An enlivened and interesting story of an important phase of our history. Contains material on such subjects as Indians, farmers, the first farmers of Virginia, colonial agriculture, pioneer farms in the West, the cotton kingdom, the ranch and ranch life, and the age of machinery. Numerous maps and illustrations.

11. *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1900.

A one-volume history of the American people, emphasizing their social, industrial, educational, religious, and territorial expansion. Many illustrations and maps.

12. *The Making of America*, by Grace Vollintine. Ginn and Company, 1925.

The central theme of this book is the story of those Western waves of migration after the Revolutionary War which brought about the early settlements from the western slopes of the Allegheny Mountains to the Pacific slope.

II. A Classroom Reading Library

The twelve books below will furnish reading matter unlike that in the books of a classroom reference library. They contain exciting, interesting, and well-told stories and tales connected with the history of our country. Each of the books may be read entire or may be used from time to time as you progress through your text. How many on the list have you read?

1. *Broad Stripes and Bright Stars*, by Carolyn S. Bailey. Milton Bradley Company, 1919.

Twenty-one stories presenting in vivid panorama the history of the American people. Each story has a central character from history. A few useful illustrations.

2. *Wonderful Escapes by Americans*, by W. S. Booth. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913.

Narratives of many phases of life in the United States since 1759. The stories are true and very appealing. They are first-hand accounts of many exciting incidents. Do not miss reading them.

3. *The Young Folks' Book of Discovery*, by T. C. Bridges. Little, Brown & Company, 1925.

Thirty-five interesting chapters on discovery and exploration from earliest times to 1912. A fresh treatment of a fascinating subject.

4. *Century Book of Famous Americans*, by E. S. Brooks. The Century Co.

Biographical side lights on the people who made our history.

5. *Peeps at History — America*, by John Finnemore. Adam and Charles Black, 1912.

A little book which touches only the high spots of our history, but treats them interestingly.

6. *Historic Adventures — Tales from American History*, by Rupert S. Holland. George W. Jacobs & Co., 1913.

Fifteen accounts of thrilling historic adventures, such as the journey of Lewis and Clark, the winning of Oregon, and the golden days of '49. Eight full-page illustrations.

7. *America*, by G. P. Knapp. Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1924.

A non-textbook treatment of our history from the discovery of America to the present time.

8. *Highlights of History*, by J. Carroll Mansfield. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1925.

A history of our country from 1492 to 1763 in picture and story. Another volume, dealing with our history since 1763, is to appear. Watch for it.

9. *Hero Tales from American History*, by Theodore Roosevelt and H. C. Lodge. The Century Co., 1895 and 1922.

Stories of Americans who knew how to live and how to die. Covers our history from the time of Washington to the close of the Civil War. Twenty-six stories in all. An abundance of good illustrations.

10. *Boys' Book of Border Battles*, by Edwin L. Sabin. George W. Jacobs & Co., 1920.

Interesting stories of battles on the frontier from 1754 to 1890. Eighteen in all. Contains material which is difficult to find elsewhere.

11. *American Hero Stories*, by Eva March Tappan. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1906.

Stories which deal with voyagers and explorers; the colonies of Virginia, Quebec, Plymouth, New York, and Pennsylvania; four famous pioneers; and war times. Covers the period from Columbus to the end of the Civil War. Many good pictures.

12. *The Story of Our Constitution*, by Eva March Tappan. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1922.

Twelve interesting chapters on the Constitution of the United States. You will want to read all this book after reading the first chapter.

The American Nation
Yesterday *and* Today

Division One

Settlement, Conquest, and Colonial Life

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Foreword

When Europeans first came to America they found in the Indians a people not nearly so far advanced in civilization as themselves. The primitive manners of the Indians gave way to the white man's habits, the land was gradually conquered by the Europeans, and within three hundred years the Indians were forced to accept what the white men gave them. This does not seem just, but it is what always happens when peoples of a lower and a higher civilization come into contact.

The great questions of those three hundred years were Which of the three great European civilizations that tried to control the New World would win the fight? Or would they divide the land and the honor? Would one of them destroy the others, or would they finally live side by side in peace?

Boys and girls who live in the United States know that their civilization is an English type of civilization; but do they know why? The answer is to be found in the story of the first three hundred years. Had that story been different we should be speaking French or Spanish in our homes and playgrounds, and this history and all other schoolbooks would be in one of those languages. Why are our schoolbooks in English? Are there in the New World any school children studying from Spanish or French books?

THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

As imagined by the artist N. C. Wyeth. No picture of Columbus was made during his lifetime

Two Twelve-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

Here are twelve books which give interesting accounts of events that occurred and of people who lived during the time covered by Division One. Make them your companions while you are studying this division. Are you already familiar with any of them? Can you add to the list?

1. *Our Old World Beginnings*, by L. B. Evans. Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.

   Something about what brought white men to America and about the ideas they brought with them.

2. *Famous Discoverers and Explorers of America*, by Charles H. L. Johnston. The Page Company.

   Accounts of the discoveries and explorations of Ericson, Columbus, Vespucci, Ponce de Leon, Balboa, Cortez, Magellan, Pizarro, De Soto, Champlain, Hudson, Marquette, and La Salle. Contains many illustrations.

3. *The Story of Columbus and Magellan*, by T. B. Lawler. Ginn and Company.

   An easy-to-read account of the Portuguese explorers, of Columbus and his discoveries, of Spanish explorations in America, and of Magellan's voyage round the world.

4. *Heroes of Discovery in America*, by Charles Morris. J. B. Lippincott Company.

   From Leif the Lucky to Robert E. Peary. Two thirds of the book is devoted to the period before 1700. A good place to seek information on all the explorers and discoveries mentioned in Division One.

5. *Daniel Du Luth*, by Everett McNeil. E. P. Dutton & Company.

   A story of the days when the French canoes first penetrated to the westward limits of the Great Lakes.

6. *The Quest of the Western World*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. George H. Doran Company.

   "The Downfall of Columbus," "The Discovery of South America," "The English Privateers," "The Pacific Coast Explorations," and "French Sailormen and Protestants" are the titles of some of the chapters. Twenty-three excellent pictures and a few good maps.

7. *Old Times in the Colonies*, by Charles C. Coffin. Harper & Brothers.

   A new edition of an old book. Treats the principal events of colonial times. Emphasizes the hardships and sufferings. Many illustrations.

8. *Colonial Days*, by W. F. Gordy. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Begins with Spain and England in the New World and ends with Pontiac's War. Valuable material on how all the colonies began, Bacon's Rebellion, Indian wars, Salem witchcraft, and the struggle for supremacy between the French and the English.

9. *The Planting of the First Colonies (1562–1733)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume II of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Much good material on the founding of St. Augustine, Jamestown, New England, Pennsylvania, New York, Maryland, Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

10. *Early Settlements in America*, by John A. Long. Row, Peterson & Company.

A treatment of the early settlements in terms of motives for leaving Europe, finding suitable locations for settlements, building houses, getting food, establishing a government, and dealing with the Indians. An abundance of illustrations and maps.

11. *Rivals for America*, by Francis Parkman. Little, Brown & Company.

Selections from Parkman's *France and England in America*. A vivid, interesting, and gripping account of New France from the beginning, about 1608, to its fall in 1763.

12. *The Colonies*, by Reuben G. Thwaites. Longmans, Green & Company.

A source of information on all phases of colonial history. Especially valuable for a treatment of colonial life in 1700.

II. A Story-Book Library

The twelve books below contain stories, fiction, and romance. Read over the list. Do you see any familiar titles? Let each member of the class choose a book to read and to tell the class about before leaving Division One.

1. *Our Little Viking Cousin of Long Ago*, by Charles H. L. Johnston. The Page Company.

An account of the Norsemen in America.

2. *The Quest of the Golden Cities*, by G. L. Knapp. Dodd, Mead & Company.

The golden cities are those that Coronado tried to find.

3. *The Flamingo Feather*, by Kirk Munroe. Harper & Brothers.

Centers round the attempt of the Huguenots to settle in Florida.

4. *The Man with the Iron Hand*, by John C. Parish. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Stories of the exploration of the Mississippi Valley. Not fiction but history, written from the sources.

5. *With La Salle the Explorer*, by Virginia Watson. Henry Holt and Company.

The title of this story suggests what it is about. An attractive book.

6. *With Cortez the Conqueror*, by Virginia Watson. Penn Publishing Company.

The story of how Cortez conquered Mexico. Many full-page colored pictures.

7. *The Story of the Pilgrims*, by Roland G. Usher. The Macmillan Company.

Eighteen chapters which portray the life of the Pilgrims in a delightful and interesting manner. You will enjoy reading them while you are studying the Plymouth Colony.

8. *Jack Ballister's Fortunes*, by Howard Pyle. The Century Co.

A pirate story. Time: about 1719; place: Virginia, North Carolina, and the sea.

9. *The Maid of Old New York*, by Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Company.

The rule of Peter Stuyvesant and the capture of New Amsterdam by the English are portrayed in this story.

10. *Soldier Rigdale*, by Beulah M. Dix. The Macmillan Company.

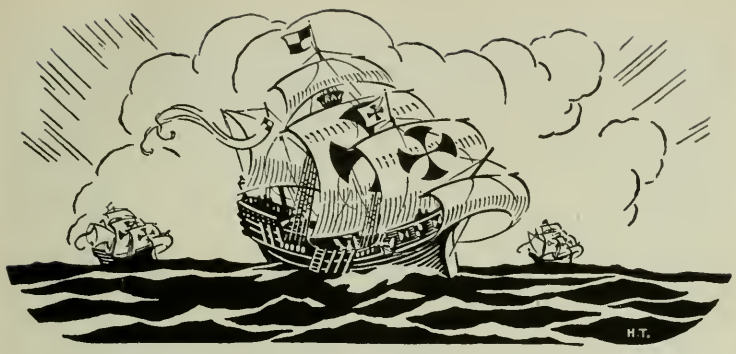
Deals with events connected with the landing of the Pilgrims and the founding of the Plymouth Colony.

11. *Colonial Stories retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Stories dealing with the early history of New England, Virginia, and New York. Contains many pictures of colonial coins.

12. *Tommy Tucker on a Plantation*, by Dorothy L. Leetch. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

A vivid word picture of colonial life in Virginia. Very easy reading. You will like it.

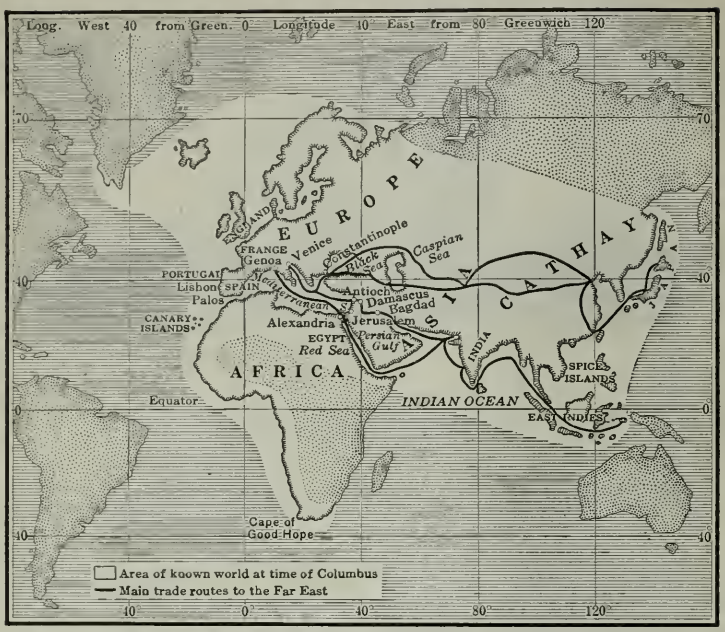


Division One

Settlement, Conquest, and Colonial Life

The people who made our country what it is were not native Americans. They were people transplanted, as a gardener transplants seedlings from an old soil to a new. The real story of the United States must begin with the coming of these people, whom we call colonists, from the Old World to the New.

When men try to do a new thing, they usually fail several times before they succeed. The first part of the New World to be found and lived in by Europeans was cold, far-away Greenland. Here the Norsemen, who had already settled Iceland, established a colony about 985 A.D., before William the Conqueror came to England. Some of their young men, under Leif Ericson, are said to have found the mainland of North America in the year 1000. These people were Christians, most of the time having a bishop sent by the Pope. They carried on trade with Europe for several centuries, but after about 1250 the trade grew very small. The colony then dwindled. In 1379 it was so weak that



The World as known to Europe when Columbus sailed

the neighboring Eskimos attacked it; and a few years before Christopher Columbus discovered America this first colony of white men in the New World disappeared.

UNIT I. DISCOVERY AND FIRST SETTLEMENTS

1. The Coming of the Spanish

Most of Europe did not know there had been such a colony or such a place as Greenland. Columbus may have known about it. He certainly believed that the earth was round, and that if he sailed far enough west he must come to India. When he reached the New World in 1492 he found a fertile, sunny land, full of resources. He meant to make

A Model of One of the Ships of Columbus compared with a Modern Steamship

The three little caravels were called the *Niña*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*. The *Santa Maria*, the largest and the flagship, was only eighty feet long. The *Majestic* and the *Leviathan* are each about eleven and a half times as long. There are models of the little ships of Columbus in Jackson Park in Chicago

the most of his discovery, and so did the Spanish nobles and merchants. Before he died he made three other voyages, founded the first Spanish colonies, and helped to plant Christianity among the Indians. Columbus was the first effective discoverer of America.

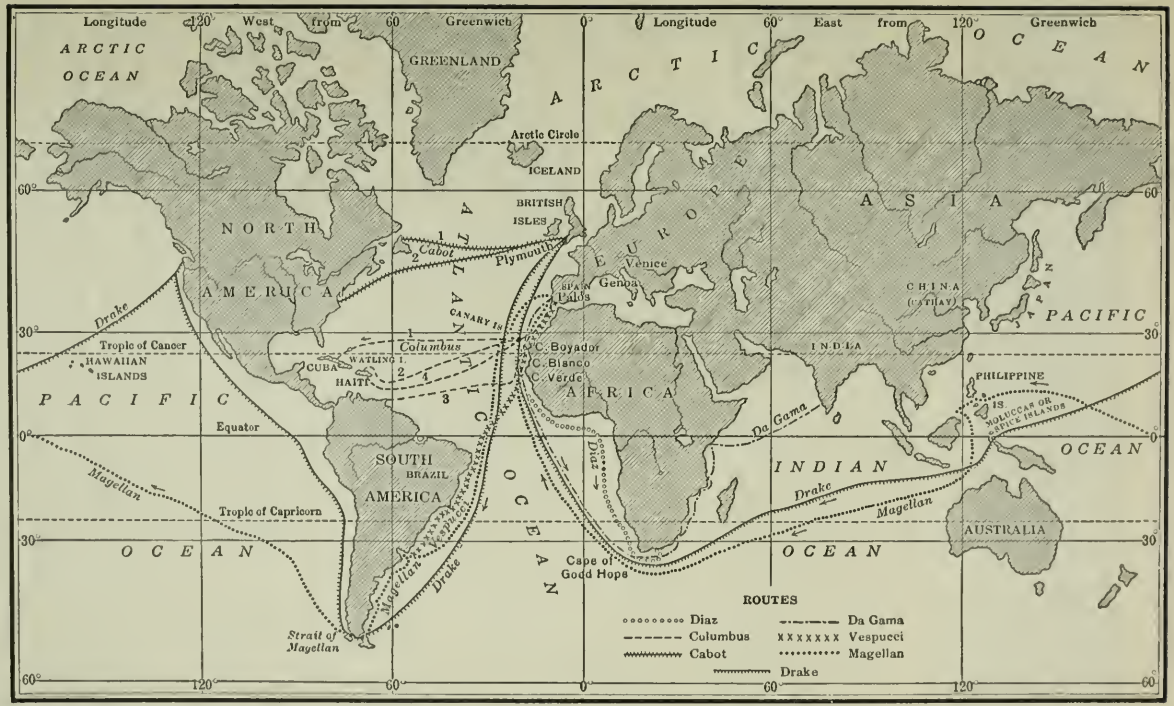
The Demarcation Line. In 1493 Portugal and Spain asked the Pope to divide between them all the discoveries that had recently been made, for it was an age of many new-found lands. The Pope, Alexander VI, decided that Portugal should have all new-found lands east of a certain line, and Spain all west of it. Portugal and Spain agreed that the line should be three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. This resulted in the settle-

ment of Brazil by Portugal, and the rest of the American lands all went to Spain.

Spain set to work at once to explore, to convert the natives, and to carry off all the wealth she could. Her explorers pushed from the Caribbean to Mexico, to Central America, to Peru, along the shores and up the rivers. Balboa found the Pacific; Cortez conquered Mexico; Pizarro subdued Peru. In 1519 Magellan, sailing from Portugal and rounding South America, crossed the Pacific and reached the Philippine Islands. Here he was killed; but one of his captains, with a few "men like ghosts" from want and suffering, sailed on west until they returned to Spain. They were the first men to circumnavigate the globe.

Spanish Colonization. The Spanish were great colonizers. They sent over shiploads of people carefully selected by the government. They sent governors and merchants and priests. By 1700 they controlled all South America except Brazil and the Guianas, all Central America, all Mexico, and many islands in the West Indies. Every year there sailed from Panama and Cuba shiploads of silver and gold, with bales of hides from the ranches, and strange new fruits and vegetables that America was adding to the tables of Europe.

And while she drained her colonies of this wealth, Spain also gave much to them. She gave them her language, her religion, and her ways of doing things. All these things and others, taken together, make the "culture" of a country. The cultures of Spain and Portugal taken together are called Iberian. This Iberian culture formed the habits of life and thought of all Latin America, as people call the colonies and countries of Central and South America and of the Caribbean. In our own day the people of those countries still have Iberian culture. Many of their ideas are so different from those of English-speaking peoples that both groups



Voyages of Discovery, 1492–1580

must exercise much patience and use real intelligence to understand each other and be friendly. One thing that all English-speaking people should remember is that the Iberian culture was the first to be established in America, and that naturally those people are very proud of this.

Review, Projects, and Enrichment

1. Books usually contain most of the following printed parts: title-page, copyright date, dedication, introduction, preface or foreword, index, contents, illustrations, maps, appendix, chapters, divisions, paragraphs, footnotes, body of book, printing on front cover, and printing on back of book. Identify in this book as many of these parts as you can. Explain the purpose of each part.

2. The Federal government grants copyrights to authors for a period of twenty-eight years. Find when the copyright of this book will run out.

3. Make a list of the daily advantages or conveniences that you now enjoy in America which were unknown in Europe in 1492.

4. On Progressive Map I all the great tribes of American Indians are located. Do these people still live in the same places? Why?

5. Who can make the longest list of new grains, fruits, and vegetables that America gave to the world? List everything you had to eat yesterday; how many of those foods are native American foods?

6. Tell the story of Columbus's struggle to find support for his venture and of the perilous voyage westward. Do you think Joaquin Miller's poem "Columbus" catches the spirit of the explorer? If so, repeat it to the class. Do they agree? See *Verse for Patriots*, by Jean Broadhurst and Clara Lawton Rhodes.

7. In the United States there are a Federal district, a river, and over forty cities and towns named in commemoration of Columbus. Show on a map the district, the river, and several of the cities.

8. Explain why there are now a North America and a South America rather than a North Columbia and a South Columbia. See "Some Early Voyagers," in *Explorers and Settlers*, by Ernest Ingersoll.

9. Follow on the wall map the four voyages of Columbus.

10. There is a famous sonnet by Keats called "On first looking into Chapman's Homer." Everyone should know it by heart. What historical mistake did the poet make in it? See *British Poets of the Nineteenth Century*, by Curtis Hidden Page.

2. Spain's Rival, France

Spain's European neighbors did not like to see her wealth and power grow great through her American possessions. They asked themselves if Spain and Portugal alone were to have all the gold and world power that came from Columbus's discovery.

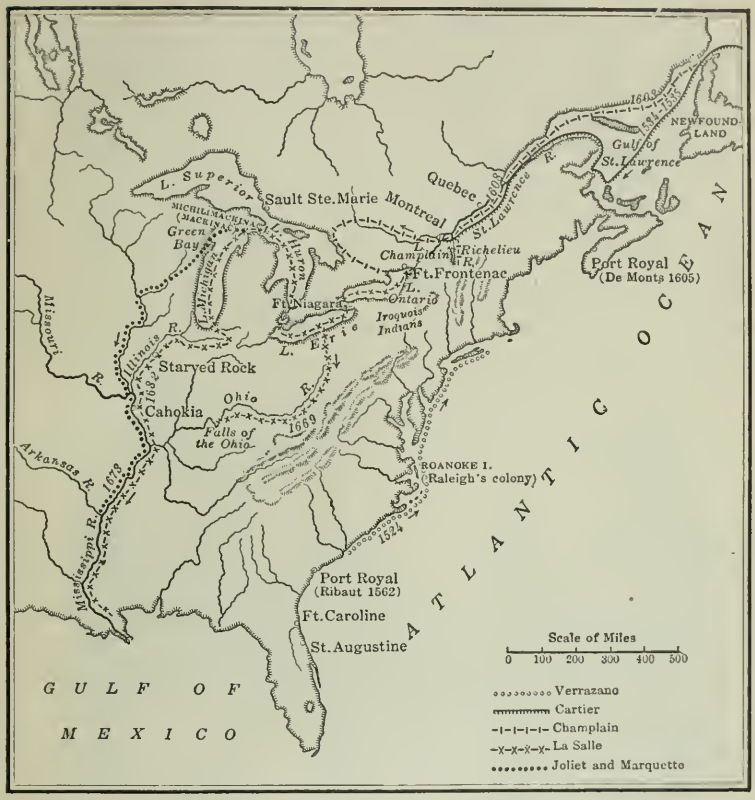
Spain's next-door neighbor, France, was especially jealous. But she had so many troubles at home that for a long time she did very little exploring in the New World, and no colonizing. Several brave and farsighted men tried to establish French power in North America, but they had so many enemies in France who opposed their plans that little was done. Jacques Cartier established a claim to Canada when he planted a cross near Gaspé Bay in July, 1534. There were several unsuccessful attempts at colonizing, both in Florida and in Canada. Finally, Samuel Champlain succeeded in founding the village of Quebec in 1608; and, with that beginning, New France was established in America.

The French Explorers. The brave Champlain discovered the lake that bears his name, and offended the Iroquois Indians who lived near it. The Iroquois never forgot their grievance; they always hated the French and therefore became the friends of the English. In 1642 some missionaries who wanted to convert the Indians took the lead in founding the colony of Montreal. Then the French turned westward. Up the St. Lawrence to the Great Lakes, along the Lakes, and up and down the rivers that flowed

into them, went the birch-bark canoes of the French. The work of exploration was carried on by many French priests and traders, with a few professional explorers. The greatest of them all was La Salle, who, in 1682, after passing up the Great Lakes and across Illinois, found his way down the length of the "Father of Waters" and took the great central valley of the continent for France. La Salle was not only a great explorer, but he had magnificent plans for making a French empire in the New World. He had, however, many enemies; and the French king, Louis XIV, thought more of gaining a tiny province in Europe than a continent across the seas. In 1687 La Salle was killed by a traitor in his own camp, as he labored to carry out his plan in what is now Texas. Never again had France so great a mind as La Salle's to plan her efforts in America.

But if they did not realize the vast dreams of La Salle, the French did settle both banks of the St. Lawrence and penetrate into the very heart of the continent. Long, narrow estates slanting back from the great river were granted to many nobles from France. Here the lord of the manor lived in rude comfort; and about him were his peasants, who tilled the soil. None of these were very rich, but most of them were content with their simple life. They did not ask unreasonable things of their masters: they did not want to take part in the government, like the English; nor to become rich and learned, like the Dutch; nor to sail the seas, like the Spanish. They stayed at home and farmed the land, except that sometimes the sons went west along the water paths of the Great Lakes to trade for furs with the Indians.

French-Canadian Culture. The government was left to the educated upper-class people, the nobles and the priests. A governor was sent out from France, and a bishop to direct the priests. The priests worked among white men and Indians alike. There was much quarreling among the



French Explorers in the New World

different parties of the upper classes, and there were no schools and no newspapers except for a few people. But the peasants were happy, for they got on very well without either.

The French control was of two distinct kinds: there was the settled Province of Quebec, with its estates and its two little cities of Quebec and Montreal. Here there were forts, garrisons of soldiers, and a gay provincial society which imitated the court life of France. And there was the back country of forest and stream and lake filled with Indians

who were usually friendly. Every spring the Indians and the fur-traders collected at the little posts on the shores of the lakes, such as those at Green Bay (in what is now Wisconsin) and Michilimackinac (in what is now Michigan). Sometimes several hundred canoes joined in one huge fleet, carrying a hundred thousand skins or more, — beaver, otter, mink, etc., — and paddled together to Montreal. Here the furs were sold for shipment to Europe, supplies were bought for the coming winter, and the Indian and the trapper got a sight of their friends before they returned for another year in the lonely forests.

Review and Projects

1. Why were the voyages of Cartier looked upon by the French as failures?

2. "Champlain's Great Work." Discuss in a brief floor talk. Read "The Father of New France," in F. W. Hutchinson's *The Men who Found America*, pp. 127–140.

3. Show the class, on a wall map, the route taken by Joliet and Marquette in their canoes.

4. Suppose yourself an Ottawa Indian invited by Governor Frontenac (of whom you can read in the books on New France) to visit Montreal. What have you seen, and what do you think you should tell your tribesmen on your return?

5. One of the world's great friendships is that of La Salle and Tonty. Can it be compared with that of David and Jonathan? Read *The Man with the Iron Hand*, by John C. Parish, or *Tonty of the Iron Hand*, by Everett McNeil.

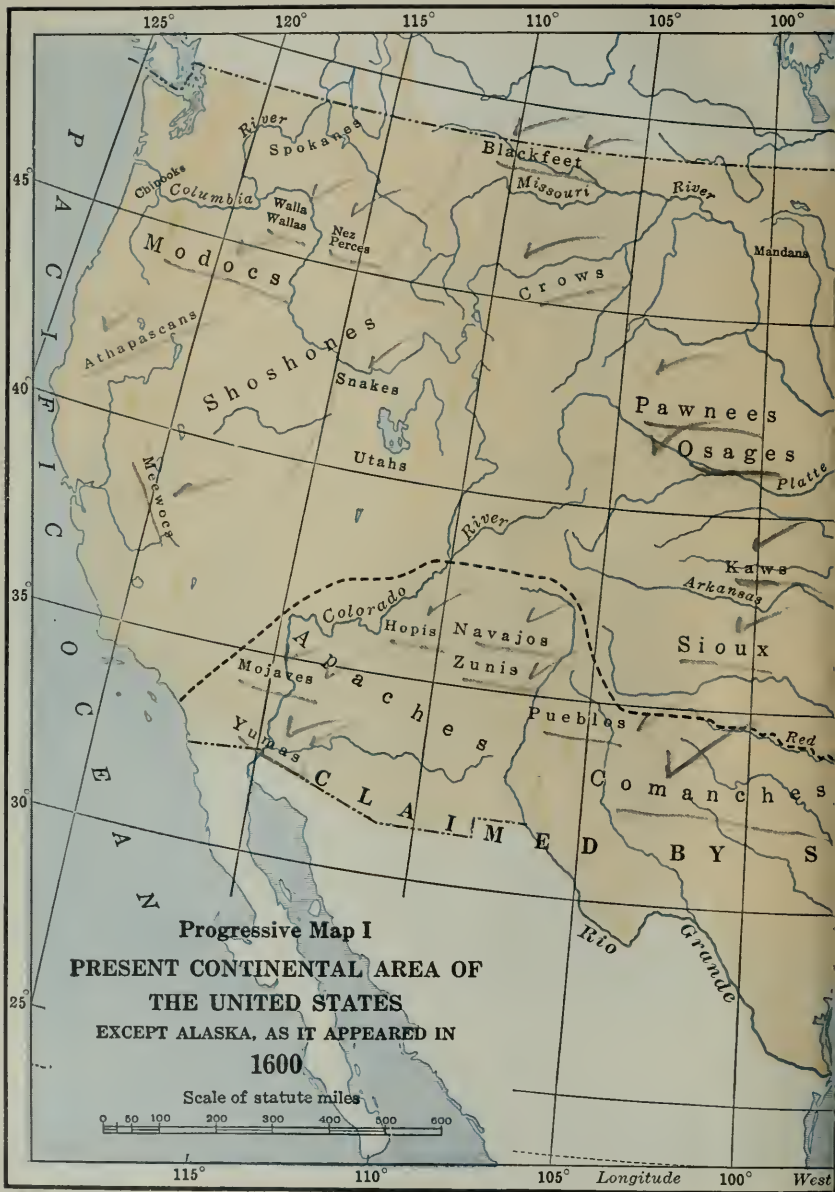
6. Can you find some towns in the Great Lakes region which still retain their French names?

3. Other Rivals of Spain

Perhaps the most bitter rivals that the Spanish had were the Dutch; for while the New World was being explored they fought a terrible war to win their freedom from the

Father Marquette on the Mississippi

Marquette was one of the most famous of the exploring missionaries. What is the significance of his gesture in this picture? What was the calumet? Why does one Indian wear so many more feathers than the others? (From a painting by Peter Hurd)



Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 • Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921

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foreign control of a Spanish king. In 1609 an Englishman, Henry Hudson, who was exploring for the Dutch came to America and sailed up a broad river that later was named for him. At its mouth, on the island of Manhattan, the Dutch East India Company founded a trading post, New Amsterdam. Dutch ships went up the Hudson and gave the Iroquois Indians cloth, beads, and guns in exchange for furs. A few shrewd Dutch gentlemen got large grants of land up the river as far as Albany, or Fort Orange, as they called it then. Dutch peasants lived on these estates and worked for their "patroons" (*patroon* is the Dutch form of the English word "patron" and means "an overlord"), much as the French peasants worked for their lords along the St. Lawrence. The patroons lived in fine manor houses containing beautiful furniture, silver, and paintings.

Dutch Culture. But the Dutch brought something better than good furniture from the Netherlands. In their old home they had a free press, representative government in each town and province, a free-school system, and they allowed everyone to worship God as he thought right. This religious toleration brought many refugees into the Netherlands, who had been driven out of their own countries by persecution. These refugees taught the Dutch new arts and greater learning. The Netherlands became a center of culture in Europe; and since their world-wide trade brought them great wealth, more people were able to share in that culture than in poorer countries.

Some of this culture, of course, found its way to New Netherland, the colony, which soon became, for a colony, very prosperous. The people belonged to the Dutch Reformed Church, but they were liberal and tolerated other Christians as well. This liberality, with the general prosperity, attracted various nationalities to New Netherland. Huguenots, Jews, Germans, English, Irish, and Scotch all

came to New Amsterdam. In 1750 that city, just as today, had a very mixed population.

The Swedes in Delaware. Far to the north of Europe there lived a brilliant but not very fortunate queen, Christina of Sweden. She saw the other countries of Europe one by one gaining a foothold in the New World, and she wanted Sweden to share in the great game. So she sent some colonists to the New World, who settled about the head of Delaware Bay in 1638. Johan Printz, the governor, established a good Indian trade, but the Swedes were not interested in coming to America. They were too fortunate at home; they did not need to migrate. Peter Stuyvesant was bound to root out the Swedes or to make them submit to the Dutch. He urged this so strongly that in 1655 a fleet was sent against them, and the little colony had to submit to being ruled by its Dutch neighbors. It was about two hundred and fifty years before the Swedes came to America in considerable numbers again.

Projects and Activities

1. Who were the Walloons? Are there Walloons in Europe now? How are they connected with American history? See *The Colonies*, by R. G. Thwaites, chap. ix, p. 198.

2. Do you know what Peter Minuit paid for the island of Manhattan? This has been called the world's best real-estate bargain. Why? See Gertrude Van Duyn Southworth's *Builders of our Country*, Book I, chap. xiv, or W. F. Gordy's *Colonial Days*.

3. By 1664 farming had replaced fur-trading as the chief interest of New Netherland. What difference did this make in the character of the colony?

4. Do you know who gave America her Santa Claus? Who started the custom of making calls on New Year's Day? Who were the first in America to color eggs for Easter? Read W. F. Gordy's *Leaders in Making America*, chap. vii.

UNIT II. THE TRANSPLANTING OF THE ENGLISH

Of all the Europeans who came to America, the citizens of the United States are most interested in the English. This is because the English, more than any other people, were the model for American civilization. That model was greatly changed in the copying; life in England and in America is very different today. But these differences spring from some of the events that brought the English to America. Let us see why and how they came.

1. "The Spacious Times of Great Elizabeth"

For a long time England took very little interest in the New World. Queen Elizabeth's grandfather, Henry VII, had refused to aid Columbus when that dreamer, poor and unknown, was begging the rulers of Europe for ships and men for his great experiment. In 1497, however, he had helped "John the Skipper," whom we know as John Cabot. Cabot hoped to find a new and shorter way to Japan by sailing west and to claim for England whatever new lands he found. No one knows just what land he reached; but at all events it was in North America, and Cabot set an English flag upon it, and thus began the English claims in America.

The Great Armada. In Elizabeth's day there was a sharp struggle with Spain. In 1588 Philip II of Spain sent a magnificent fleet called the Armada to conquer England and Holland. The whole nation, from the queen to the humblest man at arms, combined to defend the country. The English seamanship was better than that of Spain. Great storms also arose which scattered the mighty fleet, and England was saved. Only a few shattered ships, defeated and humbled, crept back to Spain.

The brave sea captains, or "sea dogs," of those days, who went out to fight the Armada, used also to play the pirate

on the Spanish Main. Some had been unjustly treated by the Spanish, some had been refused the privilege of trading in Spanish colonies, and some merely wanted the piles of gold and silver in the treasure galleons. Queen Elizabeth pretended not to know they were pirates so long as they gave her part of the booty and never failed England in time of need. The grateful "freebooters" liked this liberal-minded queen, and joined with those who gave to English North America the name "Virginia" in honor of the virgin queen.[1]

The First English Colonizers. There were two knights, Sir Humphrey Gilbert and his half-brother Sir Walter Raleigh, who knew that stealing from the Spanish what the Spanish had often stolen from the Indians was not the best way to build up England's greatness. The queen

[1] Among those who sailed against the Spanish was Francis Drake, the first Englishman to sail round the world. He and John Hawkins were attacked by the Spanish while they were engaged in trade with Spanish settlements on the Mexican coast. Drake made up his mind to be even with the Spaniards as promptly as possible. In 1572 he attacked some Spanish towns, seized a big store of money, and returned home. He arrived on a Sunday morning in 1573 and created so much excitement that the people left the preacher alone in the church and crowded out to see the hero. A few years later he set out again. This time he went through the Strait of Magellan and sailed along the western coast of South America. At one place he came upon a Spanish ship with a cargo of gold. Over the side with pistols and cutlasses went Drake's men, whipped the Spaniards, and took their treasure. At another spot Drake made a landing and happened upon a Spaniard lying asleep beside thirteen bars of silver. "We took the silver," said the historian of the expedition, "and left the man." Farther north Drake captured more treasure ships. He went as far as what is now Oregon, then across the Pacific, round the Cape of Good Hope, and so home. He arrived in Plymouth, England, in 1580, his vessel

> "With the fruit of Aladdin's garden clustering thick in her hold,
> With rubies awash in her scuppers and her bilge ablaze with gold."

Queen Elizabeth, delighted, visited Drake on the deck of the *Golden Hind* and knighted him then and there. Thenceforth he was known as Sir Francis Drake.

agreed with them, and in 1578 she gave Sir Humphrey the right to explore and colonize in the New World. His efforts cost him his life; for on his return from Newfoundland his ship went down and all on board were lost. Sir Walter Raleigh then took up the work. His first expedition landed in 1584 on what is now North Carolina, where they remained for two months. The next year a second expedition was sent out and established a settlement on Roanoke Island. After a short stay the settlers were picked up by Sir Francis Drake and taken back to England. The third and final attempt was made by Raleigh in 1587. Three ships brought a hundred and fifty men, women, and children from Plymouth to North Carolina and landed them on the same island that had been deserted by the former band. The three ships then returned to England for supplies. But England was then fighting the Armada, and it was four years before they could come to the settlement again. They found only empty huts where the English had been. No one has ever discovered what happened.

Review, Project, and Enrichment

1. Tell the story of Sir Francis Drake and his wonderful voyage round the world. Illustrate your talk by using the wall map.

2. Why were the mariners of England called "sea dogs"?

3. Who said "I shall yet see them an English nation"? Read F. W. Hutchinson's *Men Who Found America*, pp. 90–103, or L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 23–31.

4. Read *The Young Folks' Book of Discovery*, by T. C. Bridges, chaps. xiii, xvi, and xvii, and look at the pictures of English exploration in *High Lights of History*, by J. C. Mansfield.

5. About 1590 a famous medal was made in Holland bearing the words "The Lord blew and they were scattered." Can you explain why it was made?

6. Where was the famous Spanish Main? It was the favorite hunting ground of pirates. Do you know the story of Edward Teach? Was Captain Kidd a pirate? Do you know Howard Pyle's *Buccaneers and Marooners of America, Part II*? Or see "Blackbeard, the Pirate," in L. B. Evans's *America First.*

2. Why did People leave the Old World for the New?

The journey across the Atlantic in Raleigh's time was long and dangerous. Ships went down, as Sir Humphrey Gilbert's did, without a chance of rescue; and entire colonies disappeared, as Raleigh's did at Roanoke. In the face of such perils why should people continue to come to America? The answer, fortunately, is not hard to find.

Bad Times in England. England was ruled by a king and by a legislature called the Parliament. Parliament was supposed to give the people some control of their government, but it really gave them very little. Only the wealthy could choose the members of Parliament, and so the government represented only a few fortunate people. Then the Stuart kings, who followed Queen Elizabeth in 1603, tried to take from Parliament what small powers it had. They cared little for the wishes of the people. They said that God had given them the right to do what they pleased, and that a king could disobey any law he chose. They taxed the people without vote of Parliament and threw them into jail without a trial. Parliament protested, and finally a war broke out between the king and his supporters, and Parliament. Charles I, who succeeded James I in 1625, was seized and put to death as a tyrant. During these stormy years many people gladly left England.

Then it was becoming very hard to make a living in England. Wages stood still while prices went up. The laws were severe on those out of work, but jobs were not to be had. There were too many people for the amount of work.

Perhaps more people went to America for the sake of religious freedom than for any other reason. James I, the first Stuart king, once said that if people did not believe just as he did he would drive them out of the land. When they insisted on going to their own churches they were fined, cast into prison, and even put to death. Their children could not go to the schools. Quakers were stoned and mobbed on the street; Baptists were thrown into jail; Congregationalists were forced to worship in secret. In other parts of Europe conditions were as bad as in England, or even worse, except for the Netherlands, which were already crowded.

French and Germans were ready to leave home if they could find a refuge. Most of these people were poor, but there were a few who had riches to spare. The well-to-do, in looking about for ways of investing their money, thought they might invest it in colonies and do well, as the Spanish had. They were ready to supply the money for expeditions to America (1) to find a passage through the continent to the Spice Islands and (2) to discover gold and silver or to bring furs and lumber to Europe.

3. The Founding of Virginia

Some of these business men formed the London Company in 1606. They fitted out three ships, which carried a hundred and twenty men besides the crews, and the king gave them a grant of land and a charter. In 1607 the little fleet sailed into the mouth of the James River, and the settlers landed and put up a fort against Indian attack. The country was very beautiful, but later it proved not to be healthful.

Early Years at Jamestown. Jamestown colony made all sorts of mistakes, many of which the later colonies avoided, remembering the Jamestown experience. Captain

John Smith by his common sense saved the colony from utter loss for a time; and when he returned to England, there followed the long-remembered "starving time." In 1608 a few women came over, and homes were established. Then a stern, relentless governor, Sir Thomas Dale, worked the people like slaves, but he saw to it that they had food, and protected them from the Indians.

More and more settlers came, spreading up the James River and through the country round about. Labor was much needed; and so young people in England who wanted to come to Virginia, but had not the passage money, came as "indentured servants." These were men or women who earned their passage to America by serving a master for from two to seven years. The master paid the cost of passage, fed and clothed his servants while they worked for him, and sent them away at the end of their time with a new suit of clothes and often with other gifts. Sometimes large landowners gave their servants fifty acres of land when their time was up.

In 1619 a new labor supply was found. A Dutch ship captain stopped at Jamestown and sold as slaves negroes whom he had stolen in the West Indies. It was a long time, however, before any considerable number of slaves existed in America.

How the Need of a Government was Met. Questions of government were continually coming up. Accordingly, in 1619 the Company sent over Sir George Yeardley with instructions to put into operation a new plan. Every plantation was to be allowed to send two persons to a meeting in the church at Jamestown. These persons, together with Yeardley and six men to represent the Company, made up the legislature and passed such laws as were necessary. In 1619 there were eleven places that were large enough to send representatives, and ten years later there were twenty-four.

In 1624 the king decided to make an end of the London Company and to control Virginia himself by sending over a governor of his own choice. The legislature was allowed to continue. After 1624, therefore, Virginia was what was called a royal colony; that is, its affairs were in the hands of the king rather than in the hands of a company of private individuals.

Review

1. Master the meaning of the following: charter, colony, colonist, Parliament, royal colony, indentured servant.

2. The word "indentured" once meant "toothed." Why were these servants "toothed" servants? A good dictionary, such as the Century or the Oxford, will tell you some interesting facts.

3. Do you ever sing "Vive le Capitaine John" in your school? If not, ask if you may not learn it; it is particularly jolly. Who was Pocahontas? See W. F. Gordy's *Colonial Days*.

4. In a floor talk of about three minutes discuss the importance of the year 1619 in the early history of Virginia.

5. Begin for your notebook a map of the Southern colonies. Locate on the map Jamestown, Cape Fear, Chesapeake Bay, and the James, York, and Potomac rivers.

6. Tell the story of the beginnings of Virginia to yourself, to the class, or to a member of your family. Make use of the information that you acquire from your reading in books other than your text.

Project and Enrichment

There are excellent accounts of the beginnings of Virginia in Tudor Jenks's *When America was New*, pp. 1–28; John A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, pp. 125–172; G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, pp. 21–60; and W. F. Gordy's *Colonial Days*, pp. 7–24. Read one or more of these accounts.

Pilgrims going to Church
From a painting by G. H. Boughton

4. The Beginnings of New England

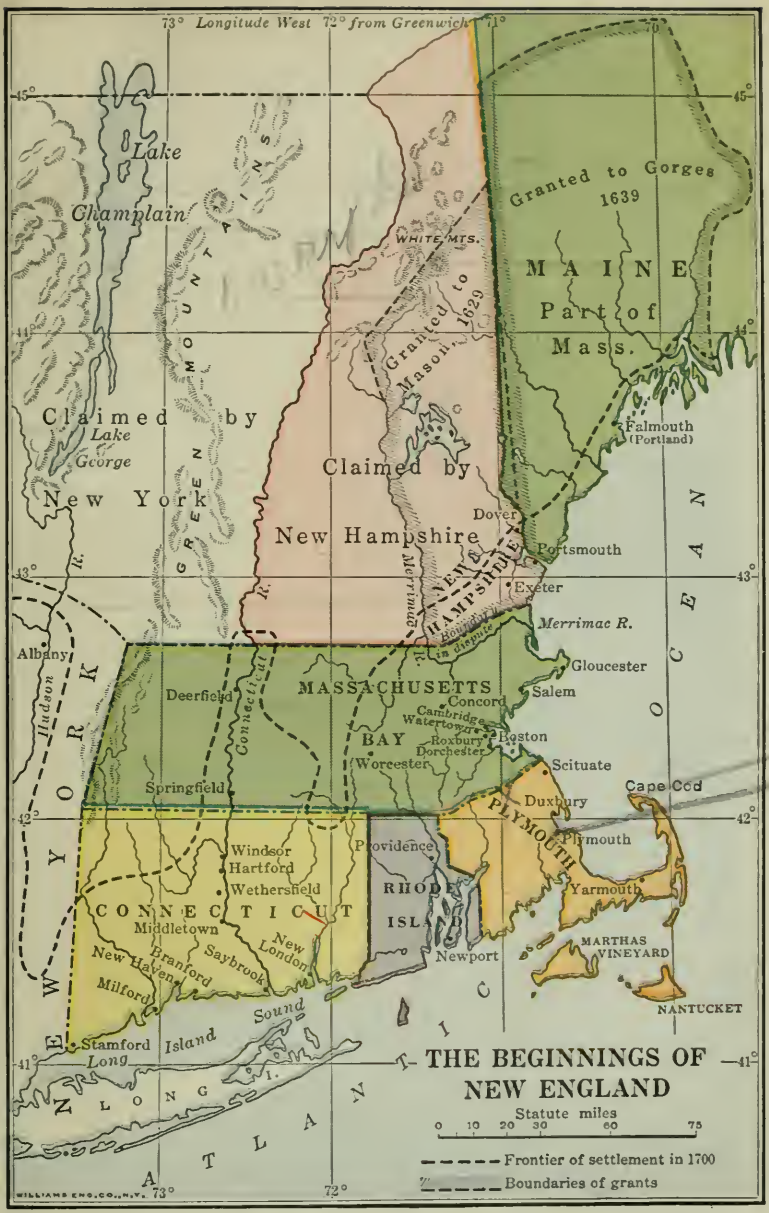
A little later than the founding of Jamestown, there began the planting of another group of English settlers, who made several colonies to the northward. This group of colonies called itself New England, and its founders and ruling class were Puritans. In order to understand what happened, it is necessary to know what had been going on in England just before the Puritans sailed across.

The Catholics and the Protestants in England during the years when America was being colonized were at swords' points most of the time. Nor was this all. Many Protestants felt that the Church of England needed a change, or purification. These people were called Puritans. There were also many who thought that any group of people had the right to set up a separate church of its own, without being bothered by king or bishop. These people were called Separatists or Independents. They were much disliked by both Queen Elizabeth and King James. Their meetings

were broken up, their members were fined, their property was taken away from them, and in some cases their leaders were imprisoned and even hanged. For these reasons many of the Separatists fled to the Netherlands to escape persecution. About the time that the Jamestown expedition was approaching the shore of Chesapeake Bay, a congregation from the town of Scrooby made its way across the English Channel and finally settled in Leyden. But the members of the congregation were not contented in the Netherlands: (1) they had to work extremely hard to make a living; (2) they found their children becoming Hollanders instead of Englishmen and being taken into the Dutch army. They therefore decided to emigrate to the New World, where they might worship with less danger of persecution and could also remain English.

On November 11, 1620, the Pilgrims landed at Provincetown, soon moving to Plymouth Harbor, in what is now Massachusetts. There were a hundred and two men and women and some children. Before they landed, the Pilgrims had decided to govern themselves by an agreement that is known as the Mayflower Compact, from the ship that brought them. John Carver was elected their first governor. Plymouth had its starving time like Jamestown, but the people were more industrious here, and the Indians were friendly. In 1623 they had a good crop, and two shiploads of new colonists arrived. In the autumn, when the crop was gathered, a day of thanksgiving was set aside. This was the beginning of what is now a national holiday all over the country.

The colony grew, and town after town was founded in the region round about. The government of each new town was mainly in the hands of its own people. They met to elect their officers and to choose representatives to make laws in Plymouth for the whole colony.


73° Longitude West 72° from Greenwich 71°
45°
44°
43°
42°
41°
Lake Champlain
GREEN MOUNTAINS
WHITE MTS.
Granted to Gorges 1639
MAINE
Part of Mass.
Granted to Mason 1629
Claimed by Lake George New York
Claimed by New Hampshire
Falmouth (Portland)
Dover
Portsmouth
Exeter
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Merrimac R.
Boundary in dispute
Albany
Hudson R.
Deerfield
Connecticut R.
MASSACHUSETTS BAY
Gloucester
Salem
Concord
Cambridge
Watertown
Roxbury
Dorchester
Boston
Worcester
Scituate
Cape Cod
Springfield
Duxbury
PLYMOUTH
Plymouth
Providence
Windsor
Hartford
Wethersfield
RHODE ISLAND
Yarmouth
CONNECTICUT
Middletown
New London
Saybrook
Branford
New Haven
Milford
Newport
MARTHAS VINEYARD
NANTUCKET
Sound
Stamford
Long Island
NEW YORK
ATLANTIC OCEAN
THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW ENGLAND
Statute miles
0 10 20 30 60 75
Frontier of settlement in 1700
Boundaries of grants
WILLIAMS ENG. CO., N.Y.

Massachusetts. Among the settlements that spread from Plymouth was one at Salem, which also attracted immigrants from England. But in 1630 a more important town was founded, which was the center of the second Puritan colony, Massachusetts Bay. A group of able and well-to-do Englishmen known as the Massachusetts Bay Company obtained a strip of land running from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, which was supposed to be near at hand. In 1630 the Company decided to move bodily to its lands in New England. Nine hundred people, coming in eleven ships, settled on the shores of Boston Harbor, in and around Boston, and also along the streams which enter the Bay.

Deacon Chapin

A typical Puritan as imagined by Augustus Saint-Gaudens, the American sculptor. (Photograph by Clifton Johnson of the statue at Springfield, Massachusetts)

Massachusetts Bay Colony had the usual hardships, but these were overcome in a few years. The people were intelligent and earnest, and they had a wise governor in John Winthrop, who knew how to manage a large enterprise. Great numbers of colonists came over in 1633–1640 owing to troubled conditions in England from which they were glad to escape. By 1643 there were over sixteen thousand persons around Massachusetts Bay — more than in all the other English colonies together. So large a population made sure that the New England colonies would be permanent.

Government. Twelve men managed the affairs of all the people at first, but in time others were admitted, provided they were members of the churches. All the churches were Puritan; the colony had been founded at great expense in order to set up Puritan churches and to establish a new kind of government according to Christian principles. The ruling class feared to admit those who were not Puritans to any part in the government, lest their whole idea in coming to America should go for naught.[1]

A legislature was established called the Great and General Court, with representatives from each village as the people spread out into the country behind the Bay. In 1644 it divided into two branches, like the English Parliament; and this became the general custom in American legislatures. Only a comparatively small number of people had control of the colony, but it is generally agreed that this small group was an unusually able one. The separate towns early took control of local affairs in "town meetings," where taxes were decided upon for roads and schools, and where town officials were elected.

Review

1. Point out in a three-minute floor talk the religious conditions in Old England which led to the settlement of New England.

2. Show why the Massachusetts Bay Colony was from the first more prosperous than Plymouth and Jamestown.

[1] At one time the Massachusetts Bay Colony was excited by the arrival of a few Quakers. They were members of an English church which did not agree in all points with the Puritans. One of their beliefs was that it was wrong to fight, and so they opposed wars. The Massachusetts Quakers were driven out of the colony, and when they returned later some of them were executed. One of these was a woman. After a few such executions the people of Massachusetts Bay thought it was a mistake to be so cruel to the members of another church. The laws were changed, and Quakers were never again killed in Massachusetts for their religious beliefs.

Project and Enrichment

1. Read one of the following, or several if possible:
   a. " The Story of the Pilgrims," in John A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, chaps. i-iii.
   b. " The First New England Colonies," in G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, chap. vi.
   c. " The First New Englanders," in Tudor Jenks's *When America was New*, chap. xi.
   d. " The Pilgrims at Plymouth " and " The Puritans in Massachusetts," in *Colonial Days*, by W. F. Gordy, pp. 53–83.

2. Write a letter from Salem to your old friend in Leeds and tell him or her what has been happening in the colony from 1630 to 1640.

5. The Filling Up of New England

Rhode Island. There was a preacher in Massachusetts named Roger Williams who disagreed with the beliefs of the church there. He thought that the government and the church should be entirely separate, so that a man could go to any church he pleased, but have full citizen's rights. He also thought that the king had no right to grant land, because it belonged to the Indians. If these beliefs became general they would undermine the power of the Massachusetts government and the church, and so in 1636 Williams was told that he must leave, and at once. Through the snows of a New England winter he found his way to Narragansett Bay, bought land from the Indians, and started a colony of his own at a town he called Providence. A Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, who also disagreed with the beliefs of her neighbors in Massachusetts, set up a little colony at Portsmouth, close by. Roger Williams was willing to allow anyone, no matter what he believed, to come to his colony. For some time the settlers took care of themselves without any authority or officer from England. But in 1663 Williams secured from the king a charter which outlined the kind of

government they were to have. It was so liberal that it served as a constitution for Rhode Island and Providence Plantations (the name which the colony took) after it became a state in the Union.

Connecticut. Connecticut grew out of Massachusetts. In 1635 a group of colonists from Boston landed on the shore of Long Island Sound and founded New Haven. The next year the Reverend Thomas Hooker, with many of the people of his parish, left New Towne (now called Cambridge) with their families, their cattle, and their farm tools and, slowly crossing the back-country of Massachusetts until they reached the Connecticut River, settled down there on the rich level land. Others followed; and soon Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield were founded. Some English noblemen founded Saybrook at the mouth of the river.

None of the settlers in and around the Connecticut valley had any special right there. They merely took the land, cultivated it, and set up a government. In 1662, however, King Charles II granted a charter which created the colony of Connecticut, making it include New Haven, as well as the valley settlements.

Maine and New Hampshire. During this time other settlements were being made north of Massachusetts Bay. The ownership of the land was disputed; but the Massachusetts Bay Company, with its claim from south of the Charles River to north of the Merrimack, was nearest at hand and could enforce its claim best. For a time, therefore, the towns of Maine and New Hampshire were under the government and protection of Massachusetts. New Hampshire was then made a separate colony under the king's control, but Massachusetts bought Maine from Sir Ferdinando Gorges and kept it until 1820. In 1691 Plymouth Colony became a part of Massachusetts.

The Massachusetts and Connecticut colonists had scarcely got well started when two enemies appeared: some Dutch traders settled in the Connecticut valley, and the Indians became threatening. In the face of these dangers Massachusetts, Connecticut (including New Haven), and Plymouth formed an alliance called the New England Confederation. Each colony agreed to send soldiers to fight for all the member colonies, if needed. The Confederation won a war with King Philip, the Indian chief, in 1675–1676; after that there was little trouble with Indians. The Confederation, which lasted from 1643 to 1684, was the first attempt at a union among the English colonies in America.

Review and Enrichment

1. Be prepared to take any part that chance may assign you in this class review of the founding of the New England colonies: (1) Draw the boundary lines of the colonies on a blackboard map which has only natural features — seashore, rivers, mountains, and lakes. (2) Tell the story of Plymouth Colony in a chalk-talk, marking each point of interest on the map as you talk. (3), (4), (5), and (6) Do the same as in (2) for each of the other colonies in order. (The teacher puts numbered tickets in a box, along with enough blanks to equal the number in the class. Those who draw blanks are to notice anything that is reported wrong. Those who draw numbers 1–6 give the oral review.)

2. Compare the New England colonies with the Southern colonies in respect to the object of settlement and the character of the settlers.

3. Read one of the following:

a. G. C. Eggleston, *Our First Century*, chaps. viii, ix, on Connecticut and Rhode Island and on the New England Confederation.

b. John A. Long, *Early Settlements in America*, chap. ix, on the growth of New England.

c. W. F. Gordy, *Colonial Days*, pp. 98–149, on Connecticut, the Pequot War, King Philip's War, and the Salem witchcraft.

6. The Royal-Grant Colonies

After Queen Elizabeth died, King James I of the House of Stuart came to the throne with very high ideas about the rights of kings. Among other things, he and the other Stuart kings thought that they could give away the English lands in America as they saw fit. It was in the reign of Charles I, the second Stuart king, that this right of granting land was first used for founding a successful Proprietary Colony; that is, a colony owned by one or more men and not by a company.

Maryland. Cecilius Calvert, second Lord Baltimore, was an English nobleman and a Roman Catholic. Members of his church were being severely treated in England, and Lord Baltimore wanted to establish a place in America where they could worship God and earn a living in peace. Charles I was his friend and granted him a large tract north of the Potomac River. The colony was named Maryland in honor of the queen, Henrietta Maria.

In 1634 the first colonists landed on the shores of the Chesapeake. There were two hundred and twenty of them — twenty "gentlemen" and two hundred laborers. A town was laid out and called St. Mary's, and the new settlement prospered from the start. Its location was more healthful than that of Jamestown. More laborers had come over than in the first expedition to Virginia, and the neighboring settlements could be relied upon for trade.

Earning a Living in Maryland. The people of Maryland earned their living by raising tobacco. By 1675, when the colony was forty-one years old, the population was about twenty thousand. Like the Virginians, the people of Maryland lived on farms, and it was not until a century after the beginning of the colony that Baltimore, destined to become the great city of Maryland, was even founded.

Lord Baltimore and his successors appointed a governor and other officers for the colony. The proprietor rented farms, or plantations, to colonists who would come over and settle, and he gave larger plantations to those who brought other settlers with them. Within a short time after the founding of the colony, the proprietor allowed a legislature to be established similar to that of Virginia.

One of the most interesting things about the early history of Maryland was the extent of the religious freedom which was allowed there. A famous law of 1649 provided that no one who said that he believed in Jesus Christ should be molested on account of his religion. This gave Catholics and Protestants an equal standing and prevented either sect from being fined or put into prison on account of its religious beliefs.

The Carolinas. The settlement of the Carolinas began in 1663. In that year the king granted eight of his friends a strip of land extending from Virginia on the north to the Spanish settlements in Florida on the south. In the northern part of the grant there were already a few settlers. These were Virginia farmers who had gone far away from home in the search for fertile lands along the rivers. They had found what they were seeking in the valley of the Chowan River, which flows into Albemarle Sound. It was not until 1670 that the proprietors of Carolina landed an expedition of colonists. In that year a small group of settlers reached the harbor where Charleston now stands. The site was a happy choice, for the soil was good and the harbor an excellent one. In spite of these favorable conditions, however, the growth of Charleston was slow. French Protestants, called "Huguenots," arrived and became an important addition to the southern part of Carolina.

The Early History of the Carolinas. Life in the Carolinas during the early days was far from quiet. Indians, and Spaniards from Florida, kept the colonists in constant

danger. Pirates, particularly a certain "Blackbeard," made raids along the coast. Moreover, there were differences between the northern and southern parts of the Carolinas:

1. The southern part produced rice and indigo and used much slave labor; in fact, there were more blacks than whites there at an early date.

2. The northern part produced tobacco, tar, pitch, and turpentine, and few slaves were used.

3. The population of the northern part grew much faster than that of the southern part.

4. Besides these conditions, there was a distance of three hundred miles between the settlements on the Chowan and the settlement at Charleston.

In the course of time it seemed advisable for the proprietors of Carolina to give up their control to the king. This was done in 1729. The colony was divided into North and South Carolina, each with a governor appointed by the king, and each with its own legislature elected by the people.

King Charles II helps himself to New York. King Charles now turned his attention to the Dutch settlements which lay between his colony of Connecticut and his colony of Maryland. He thought that this land would make a good source of income for his younger brother James, who was the Duke of York. So although the Dutch had been in possession for about fifty years, he gave his brother a grant of the colony in 1664.

The Dutch claimed the land because (1) Hudson had discovered it and (2) they had made a settlement there. The English also had a claim (1) because of Cabot's discovery, back in 1497, and (2) because New Amsterdam was inside the territory already granted by the kings to Virginia and New England. The Duke of York decided to fight the Dutch.

In 1664 he sailed up to New Amsterdam with three shiploads of soldiers. The Dutch governor, Peter Stuyvesant,

Granted to London Company 1609
Ft. Duquesne (Ft. Pitt)
PENNSYLVANIA
Philadelphia
Wilmington
N. J.
DELAWARE
Claimed by Penn and Baltimore
Granted to Baltimore 1632
Potomac R.
Annapolis
CHESAPEAKE BAY
St. Mary's
Scioto R.
Ohio R.
Kentucky R.
Big Sandy R.
Kanawha R.
VIRGINIA
James R.
Williamsburg
Cumberland R.
CUMBERLAND MTS.
APPALACHIANS
Roanoke
Jamestown
Norfolk
Granted to London Company 1606
Chowan R.
Albemarle Sd.
Pamlico Sd.
New Bern
Granted to a Board of Eight Noble Proprietors, 1663-1665
Pedee R.
Cape Fear R.
Cape Fear
Savannah R.
Santee R.
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
Charleston
Port Royal
CAROLINA
Chattahoochee R.
Flint R.
Altamaha R.
St. Augustine
GULF OF MEXICO
FLORIDA
EARLY VIRGINIA MARYLAND AND THE CAROLINAS
Scale of statute miles
0 25 50 100
Boundaries of grants
Longitude West 80° from Greenwich

New York in 1681

At the left is the mayor's house, and at the right the town pump. (From a painting by E. L. Henry. Photograph by Ewing Galloway)

was helpless. The English were all around him, and his own people disliked him, for he had not given them the rights that Dutchmen considered their due. He was compelled to surrender without a struggle.

The name "New Amsterdam" was changed to New York in honor of the Duke, and Dutch power came to an end. A few years later the Dutch recaptured the city and held it for two years. Then it was returned to the English for good. But although the government was now English, the culture remained largely Dutch, and to this day many proud families in America bear Dutch names that once were well known in New Netherland.

New Jersey. The land that now makes New Jersey was included in the grant given to the Duke of York. In 1664 he gave it to two of his friends. Soon afterwards it was divided into two parts, East New Jersey and West New Jersey. The name "Jersey" was chosen because one of the owners had governed the island of Jersey, near

England. The Jerseys were settled by New Englanders, by Scotch Presbyterians, and by a few colonists from Old England. After a time the two colonies were purchased by some Quakers, including William Penn, and came under the control of one group of owners.

Projects and Enrichment

1. How does the First Amendment to the Federal Constitution (Appendix B) differ from the Maryland law of 1649?

2. Continue the map of the Southern colonies in your notebook. Put in all the important rivers, towns, and forts that you read about in the supplementary books.

3. If you look at the maps, you will notice that the claims of the various colonies and proprietors overlapped. And yet they all came from the crown; that is, from the different kings. How do you explain this? What does it show about the governments of those days? Does the United States or England grant the same land to different people now?

4. Tar, pitch, and turpentine were called naval supplies in colonial times. Does this explain partly why North Carolina grew faster than South Carolina at first?

5. Read one or more of the following accounts:

   a. "The Settlement of Maryland and the Carolinas," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. xv.

   b. "The Settlement of Maryland," in John A. Long's *Early Settlements in America*, chap. x.

   c. "The Peopling of Carolina," in G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, chap. xiii.

6. *Resolved*, That the Dutch had a better claim to New York than the English. Choose sides and debate this question.

7. There is an interesting story of "Old Dutch Times in New York," in *Explorers and Settlers*, edited by C. L. Barstow, pp. 171–184. See also "The Dutch and New Netherland," in *Colonial Days*, by W. F. Gordy, and John A. Long's story of New Netherland in his *Early Settlements in America*, chap. xii.

7. William Penn's " Holy Experiment "

William Penn was an English Quaker. The king owed Penn's father a large sum of money, which remained unpaid at the time of the father's death. The king then agreed to pay the debt by giving young Penn a grant of land in America, which he named Pennsylvania, or Penn's Woods. This was in 1681. Penn was delighted to have the land, for he wanted to found a colony where the harassed Quakers could live in peace. Penn himself had been imprisoned for his Quaker faith, and so had hundreds of others. So the Quakers came to the banks of the Delaware in 1682, and soon had a flourishing colony. It grew fast because

1. The Dutch, Swedes, Finns, and English already there were protected by Penn.

2. Penn wrote an account of his colony which was translated into several languages. In 1677 he had visited the Rhineland, which led later to the coming of the Germans under Francis Pastorius, the founder of Germantown. All good people were welcome to Pennsylvania.

3. Quakers from England and other lands were attracted by the promise of religious liberty and cheap land. They all trusted Penn.

4. Penn treated the Indians as justly as if they had been powerful white men. He never took land from them without paying them a fair price. Therefore the Indians liked him and his people, and growth was not hindered by fear of Indian outbreaks as in some other colonies.[1]

[1] The lands given to Lord Baltimore for Maryland and to Penn for Pennsylvania overlapped. Each proprietor wished to get all the land he could, so that a boundary dispute started which lasted until 1760, long after Penn's death. A line was then agreed upon, and a few years later two English surveyors, Mason and Dixon, drew the boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania as it still exists. "Mason and Dixon's line" was long famous as the dividing line between the North and the South.

The Swedes, who had settled on the Delaware in 1638, had been captured and subdued by the Dutch and later by the Duke of York, after he had taken New Netherland. In 1682 Penn obtained the region from the Duke and made it part of Pennsylvania. This arrangement proved to be unsatisfactory, and so three counties were made into the separate colony of Delaware. They had the same government and governor that Pennsylvania had.

Projects and Enrichment

1. William Penn's house still stands in Fairmont Park, Philadelphia. It was built in 1682. If the house had a tongue, what story might it tell to a group of boys and girls picnicking in the park?

2. Read the story "William Penn and the Quakers," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 63–67; also "The Quakers in Pennsylvania," in W. F. Gordy's *Colonial Days*, pp. 173–183.

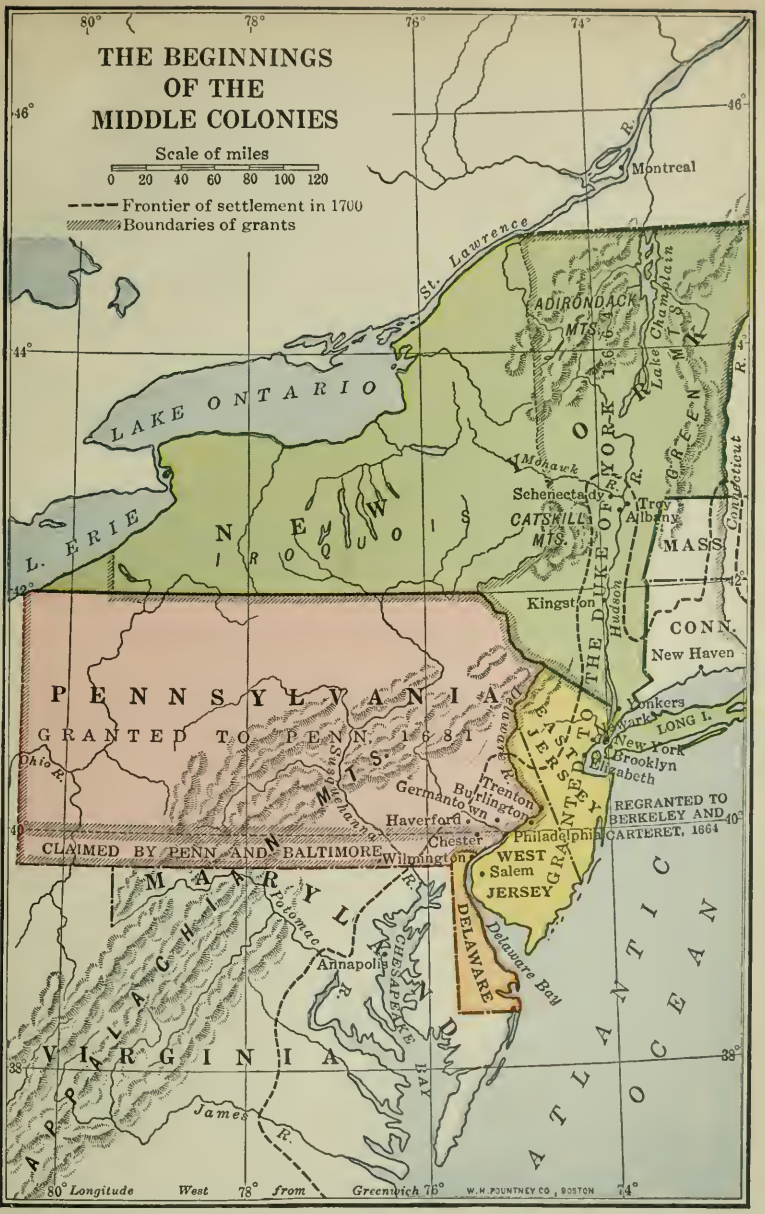
3. The *Concord*, which brought the first Germans to Philadelphia on October 6, 1683, is called the *Mayflower* of the Pennsylvania Germans. How does their story compare with that of the Pilgrim fathers? Read *The German Element in the United States*, by A. B. Faust, Vol. I, p. 34.

4. A very important beginning, indeed, was that of William Rittenhouse in Pennsylvania. In 1690 he built the first paper mill in America on a little stream near Germantown. Why was this an important event in American history?

5. How did the Quakers dress in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? What was their "plain talk"?

6. "Quaker" is not the correct name of William Penn's religious group. What is it? Do they justify their name? Why?

7. In what important respect were Roger Williams, William Penn, and Dominie Bogardus of New Amsterdam alike? See *The Dutch and English on the Hudson*, by Maud Wilder Goodwin, Vol. VII of The Chronicles of America Series, pp. 88–94, for material on Bogardus; also *Tales of Old New York*, by Albert Ulman and Grace C. Strachan.


THE BEGINNINGS OF THE MIDDLE COLONIES
Scale of miles
0 20 40 60 80 100 120
Frontier of settlement in 1700
Boundaries of grants
80° 78° 76° 74°
46° 44° 42° 40° 38°
Montreal
St. Lawrence R.
ADIRONDACK MTS.
Lake Champlain
LAKE ONTARIO
L. ERIE
NEW YORK
IROQUOIS
Mohawk R.
Schenectady
Troy
Albany
CATSKILL MTS.
Connecticut R.
MASS.
Kingston
Hudson R.
CONN.
New Haven
PENNSYLVANIA
GRANTED TO PENN, 1681
Ohio R.
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
Yonkers
Newark
LONG I.
New York
Brooklyn
Elizabeth
Germantown
Burlington
Trenton
Haverford
Chester
Philadelphia
REGRANTED TO BERKELEY AND CARTERET, 1664
CLAIMED BY PENN AND BALTIMORE
Wilmington
WEST JERSEY
Salem
GRANTED TO BERKELEY AND CARTERET, 1664
MARYLAND
Potomac R.
Annapolis
Chesapeake Bay
DELAWARE
Delaware Bay
VIRGINIA
James R.
APPALACHIAN MTS.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
80° Longitude West 78° from Greenwich 76°
W. H. FOUNTNEY CO., BOSTON

8. The Last English Colonies

After the founding of Pennsylvania and Delaware no more colonies were founded for almost fifty years. The colonies grew steadily; and slowly they built up their wealth by farming, building ships, trading, and even making a few things that had once been imported from England.

Georgia. The Stuarts had ceased to rule; and another family, that of Hanover, had come to the throne when the next colony was founded, also by royal grant. This time the founder was not looking after his own power and wealth, but rather the welfare of the poor. In those days people who could not pay their debts were thrown into prison and kept there until someone paid the money. Therefore many men spent years in prison not because they were criminals, but merely because they were poor.

James Oglethorpe was an English gentleman of means and high character, who was sorry for these men. In 1732 he and some friends obtained a grant from King George II for a tract of land between Charleston and the Spanish settlements in Florida. Here Oglethorpe thought his poor debtors could have another chance, and the king was glad to have Englishmen in that No Man's Land. Savannah was founded in 1733; and later a group of Bavarians from Salzburg came to the colony, with Scotch, French, and others who thought they might do well there. Oglethorpe did all he could for them; but most of them were very poor and ignorant, and so the colony grew slowly and had many troubles at first.

The last two colonies came to England at the end of the Seven Years' War, of which we shall speak later. When the treaty of peace was made in 1763, East and West Florida passed from Spain to England. England did what she could for them, sending out governors and soldiers and trying to

protect the scattered settlers from the fierce Indians, who liked the Spanish better than the English and so made much trouble. But the few Englishmen who went to the Floridas were still very dependent on this protection when the other colonies decided to become independent of the mother country in 1776. Of course they did not want to be independent; they could not possibly feel safe without English soldiers and ships to keep off the Indians and the Spaniards from the West Indies. So they did not join in the Revolution; and when the other colonies became states they seemed to forget that for a few years the Floridas had been English colonies like themselves. After the Revolution these last two colonies became Spanish again.

Project and Enrichment

1. Read "Blackbeard the Pirate," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 118–120. Then make up a pirate story of your own that will explain why Blackbeard haunted the places he did, and tell it to the class.

2. *Resolved*, That James Oglethorpe was a greater philanthropist than William Penn. Choose sides and debate this question.

3. Explain to the class why the region north of Florida is referred to in the text as No Man's Land before 1732.

4. Eliza Lucas was in her day a very up-and-coming girl in South Carolina. Can you find out what she did? See *The Story of Our Country*, by Henry W. Elson and Cornelia E. MacMullan, Book I, chap. v.

5. Write a letter from Savannah to your home in Boston, dated Thanksgiving Day, 1760. Why are you homesick?

6. In G. C. Eggleston's *Our First Century*, pp. 219–228, and in R. G. Thwaites's *The Colonies*, chap. v, you will find interesting information not given in the text. (Or see a later edition of Thwaites by M. W. Jernegan for similar material.) Report to the class in a floor talk.

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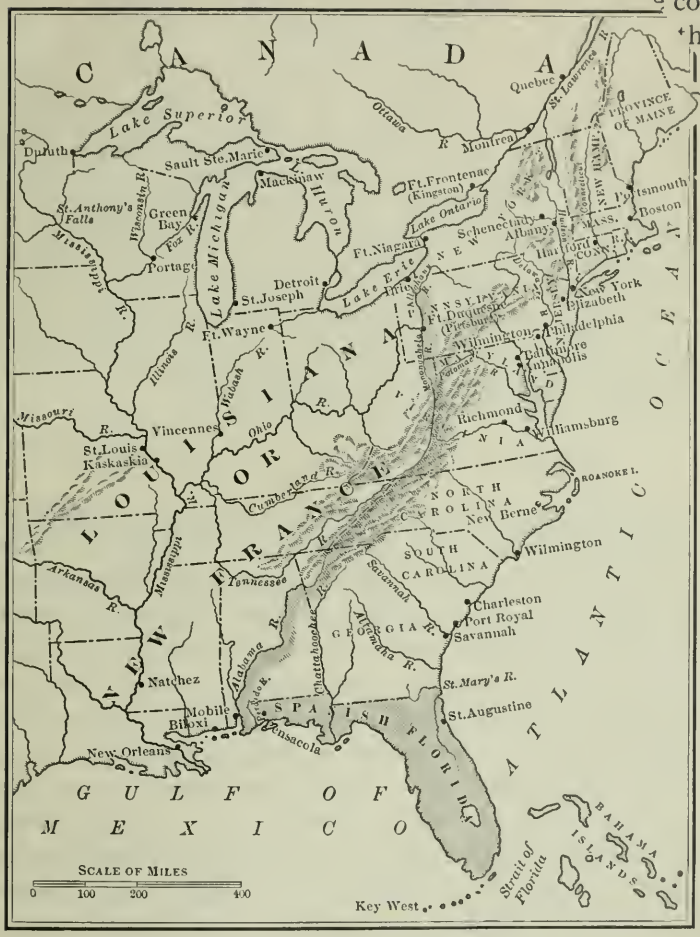


The Colonies, 1760

This map shows the French and English colonies while the Seven Years' War was going on. Compare it with the map on page 51, to see how the treaty of 1763 changed the ownership of what is now Canada and the United States

UNIT III. THE FIGHT FOR THE CONTROL OF NORTH AMERICA

We have seen that three different types of European culture were transplanted to the New World. There was plenty of room for all; but the hatreds and misunderstandings and rivalries of the three nations in Europe were brought across the sea by governors and settlers. The Spanish were occupied mainly far to the south of the English possessions, and so there was little friction between those two countries except on the borders of Florida. But the French and the English met each other on a long line from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi.

1. How the Colonies Grew (1700–1763)

New England. Between 1700 and 1763 large numbers of both French and English came to America. New England had about four hundred and seventy-five thousand people, or five times as many in 1763 as in 1700. They had crept up the rivers inland, making farms and villages, and by 1763 there were some people in what is now southern Vermont. The Indians, usually friendly, came to the log cabins of the pioneers and traded with them or begged a meal.

The Middle Colonies. In New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware the population had multiplied some eight or nine times since 1700; by 1763 it reached about four hundred thousand. Since the English had founded colonies, they had been increased by a long, steady stream of persecuted Germans and by Scots who had settled in Ireland for a time and then come to America. The Germans filled up Pennsylvania back of the first settlers as far west as the Susquehanna valley; the Scotch-Irish, as they were called, went still farther west and were soon pushing down the valleys into Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas.

The Southern Colonies. From Maryland south the colonies had also grown about eight times larger than they were in 1700; by 1763 they had nearly seven hundred and twenty thousand people. But, of all these people, perhaps two in five were slaves. The white indentured servants, so common in the earlier years, had now almost disappeared except in Maryland. The colonists had once or twice tried to stop slavery, but the English government protected it because important people made fortunes in the slave trade. And the colonists themselves soon found it far easier to make a Negro slave work under the hot Southern sun than to do that work themselves. So slavery grew more and more of an institution as rice and indigo and tobacco crops became more profitable.

2. Shall England or France Control North America?

As the new settlers on the Atlantic coast went farther and farther inland they met the obstacle of the Appalachian Mountains. They ran from northern Georgia to the White Mountains in New Hampshire. In those days it was impossible for a farmer to carry his crops to market across their wooded peaks. Only a few colonists were so venturesome as to go over the ridge to the other side. But if the English were not going into the central valley, the French were. There were not nearly so many French in all America as there were English in a single colony, such as Massachusetts or New York; but they ranged farther afield. They had a definite plan too for controlling the Great Lakes and the valley of the Mississippi.

The Chain of French Forts. On the shores of Lake Ontario, where the lake empties into the St. Lawrence, was built Fort Frontenac (its position can be seen on Progressive Map II). Another fort was built at Niagara, another at

Detroit, and another at Vincennes, Indiana. The Mississippi country was held by forts at Kaskaskia, Illinois, and at New Orleans. At each fort there was a small garrison of soldiers, a missionary, and generally a few fur-traders. Besides the forts, a number of mission stations were established by missionaries who wished to spread Christianity among the Indians. There were also many Frenchmen who belonged to no fort at all, but who roamed about among the Indians, trading furs and seeking adventure.

Hence, although the French had only a few colonists in America, they had made friends with the Indians and had a firm grip on the whole country beyond the Appalachian Mountains. Would the French go eastward and capture the English colonies? Or would the English climb the mountains and try to drive away the French?

French and English Rivalry in Europe. France and England were as much rivals in Europe as they were in the New World. For at least three hundred years they had been the most bitter enemies. Whenever they were at war in Europe (as they often were) the colonists in America sent soldiers against each other. From 1689 to 1697 they fought King William's War, so called in America because William III was then king of England. Between 1702 and 1713 they fought Queen Anne's War. At the end of this war England took from France the region now called Nova Scotia. They were at it again, these bitter rivals, from 1744 to 1748. This was King George's War, named for George II. During this struggle New England gave four thousand men to help a British fleet capture Louisburg, a great fort on Cape Breton Island.

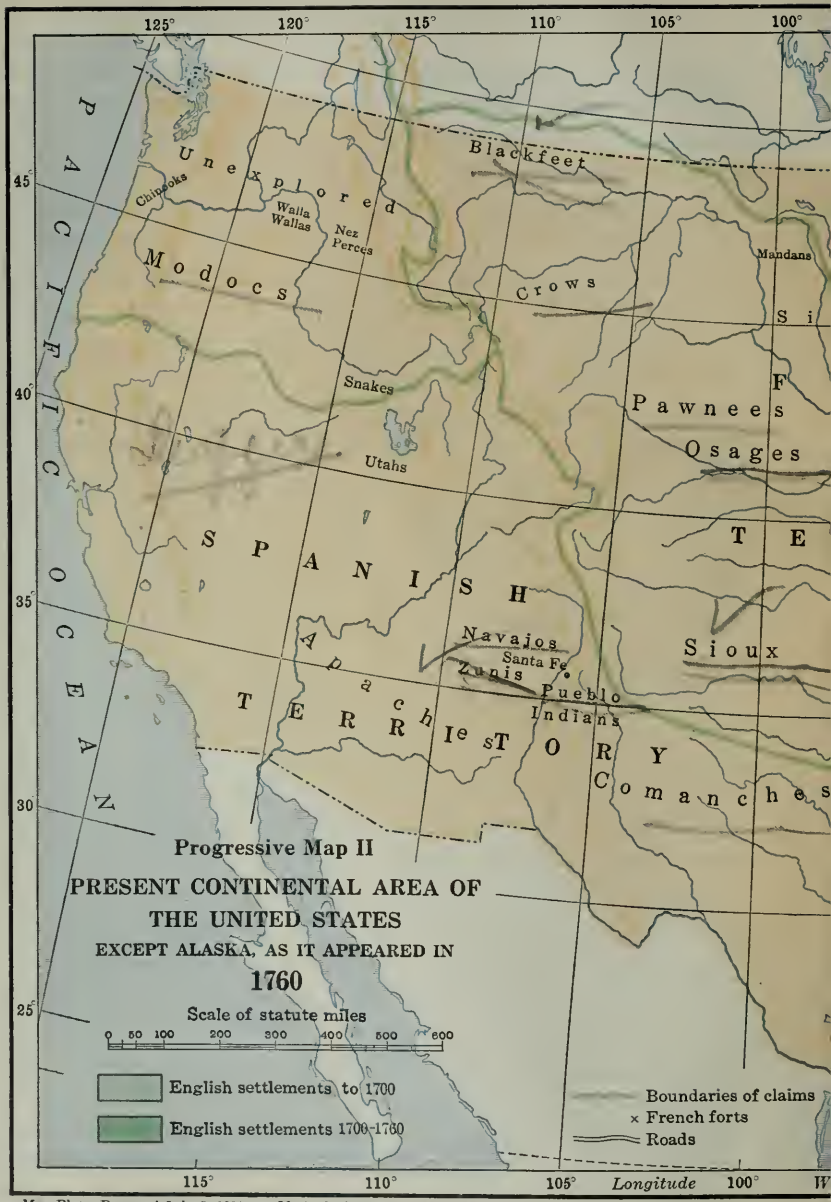
At the Forks of the Ohio. The smoke of this last contest had hardly cleared away when the French began building forts near the "forks of the Ohio," as they called the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. Some Virginians had their eyes on the same spot, and had formed

a company to send out settlers to colonize it. When Governor Dinwiddie heard that the French were already there, he sent a letter warning them to leave the Ohio valley. For his messenger he picked a twenty-one-year-old Virginia surveyor named George Washington. Washington's journey to the forks of the Ohio can now be taken in a few hours by train or motor car, but in November and December, 1753, it took weeks of hard and dangerous traveling.

The French were not to be frightened by a young man with a letter from the governor of Virginia; they built another fort close by, which they named Fort Duquesne. It stood where Pittsburgh now stands. Thereupon Governor Dinwiddie sent Washington again, this time with some soldiers. At first Washington was able to defeat the French, but later he was beaten and forced to go back. This was in 1754. The next year the English general Braddock was defeated and killed by the Indian allies of the French, near Fort Duquesne.

The French and Indian War, 1756–1763. The battle near Fort Duquesne started the French and English to fighting again. In America the quarrel was known as the French and Indian War; in Europe several other nations took part in it, and the conflict was called the Seven Years' War. France and England fought each other all over the world: in the West Indies, where both had colonies; in India, which both wished to have; in Europe, wherever either side could find soldiers belonging to the other; and on the sea, whenever an English warship met a French vessel. It was well understood that each nation would take away from the other all the land and all the colonies and all the trade that it could.

The strongest French fort in America was Quebec, situated on the top of a high, steep bluff on the St. Lawrence River. The city was defended by nearly sixteen thousand French, Canadians, and Indians under General Louis de



Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 · Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921

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Montcalm. From the top of the cliff Montcalm could look for miles up and down the St. Lawrence as if he were in a balloon.

Against this city and general the English sent General James Wolfe. He took the city on the night of September 12, 1759, by means of a steep footpath up the cliff. Wolfe and Montcalm, both great soldiers, were killed. And New France fell with the city of Quebec; it has been an English possession ever since.

This victory of the English was but one of many, in India or in Europe, on land or on the sea. In 1763 peace was declared, and France had to give up her colonies in North America.

The French and Indian War had important results for the American colonies:

1. It decided that the great country from the Appalachians west to the Mississippi should belong to England, not France.

2. It gave Florida to England.

3. It gave some military training to the colonial troops who took part in the war, and it trained a few leaders, especially George Washington.

4. It left many of the colonies in debt, for they had supplied soldiers and had paid and partly equipped them.

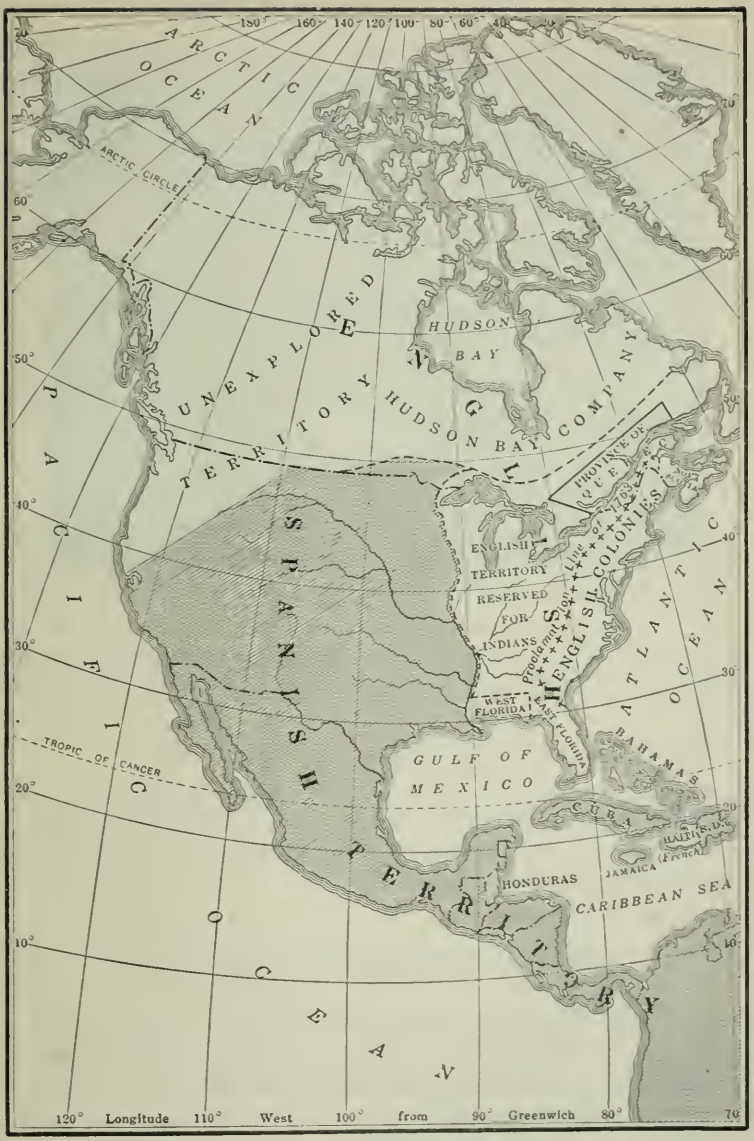
5. Now that the French were driven out of North America, the English colonists did not need British troops to protect them against their Canadian neighbors. The dangers of Indian raids remained, of course, but the danger of French *and* Indian massacres was gone.

Review

1. Upon what did the English base their claim to North America? Upon what did the French base theirs? Which had the better claim?

2. Why was the possession of the Ohio valley so important to the French? to the English?

3. Show why the fall of Quebec is called one of the decisive battles of the world.



North America in 1763

4. Prepare a story of the struggle between England and France for supremacy in North America, using the following sentence outline:

a. From 1700 to 1763 the English colonies in America increased rapidly owing to (1) a large native-born population and (2) immigration, especially German and Scotch-Irish.

b. The growth of the English colonies toward the west was halted by the Appalachian Mountains.

c. The French were extending their power from Canada down into the Mississippi Valley and were building forts at many places.

d. The French and the English had long been rivals in Europe and America.

e. They fought for the New World in the French and Indian War, 1756–1763. France lost.

Projects

1. Find in your geography the two small islands off the northeast coast of North America which France was allowed to keep and still holds. Has France any other territory in the New World today?

2. If you had been an Algonquin Indian living west of the Allegheny Mountains in 1754, which side would you have helped in the French and Indian War? If you had been an Iroquois Indian which side would you have helped? Give your reasons in each case.

3. Quebec is called the Gibraltar of America. Why?

4. What poem did Wolfe repeat before taking Quebec? Can you find the story? See *Rivals for America*, by Francis Parkman, chap. x, or *The Story of Our Country*, by Henry W. Elson and Cornelia E. MacMullan, Book I, chap. xi.

UNIT IV. COLONIAL LIFE ABOUT 1763

In 1763 there were about one and a half million people in the English colonies from Maine to Georgia. What kind of houses did these ancestors of ours live in? What did they eat and wear? What work did they do? What amusements did they have? How did they travel, worship, and vote? How were they educated? In short, how did they live?

A Pioneer Settler's Cabin

A scene which testifies to the early hardships of pioneer women. (From "Daniel Boone," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press)

1. Colonial Homes

The first settlers in any part of America had to live in the roughest sort of shelter. They lived under trees, in dugouts, or in sheds made from the bark of trees. They made "three-faced camps," which were rude shelters open on one side, where a fire was built. Abraham Lincoln lived in such a house as late as 1816.

The most common American home on an American frontier was the log cabin. At first it was built of round logs notched at the ends for fitting together. There was no floor, no loft or attic, and the wind whistled through the cracks. Later on the settler split small logs, smoothed them with an ax, and made thick, rough boards called puncheons for a

The Parson Capen House at Topsfield, Massachusetts

This house, built in 1683, is a good example of the houses people built when the first hardships of the frontier had passed and comfort was possible. The kitchen of this house is reproduced in the American wing at the Metropolitan Museum in New York City. It stands half a mile from the Boston-Newburyport turnpike. (Copyright, by Topsfield Historical Society)

floor. He stuffed the chinks of the wall with clay, or covered the outside with clapboards. Nails were scarce ; so he fastened the clapboards with wooden pegs. There was often a sort of shelf under the roof, reached by a homemade ladder, and there the children slept.

In time roomy farmhouses, comfortable for those days, took the place of these beginnings. The great estates of New York, Maryland, and Virginia could boast of mansions like those in England at that time. Houses in the cities and towns were often large and elaborate, of stone or brick. In Boston, New York, and Philadelphia the houses were three and even five stories high. There were few towns in the South, and wood was the most common material for houses there. Many of the colonial houses of Charleston and

Westover, One of the First Colonial Mansions in Virginia, near Richmond

William Byrd built this house in 1734. Do you know the story of Evelyn Byrd? Have you ever heard of any of William Byrd's descendants? In the time of the four Georges, architects adapted old Greek ideas of building to the needs of England and her colonies, and thus produced a very beautiful style called — for our country — American Georgian. This is a fine example. How many examples can you find in your town? Do you know the name by which American Georgian is commonly called? Why is it so called? (Photograph by Ewing Galloway)

Savannah that still stand, made of cypress and pine, are exceedingly beautiful, and they are often copied today.

The furnishings of colonial houses were as varied as the houses themselves. In the one-room log cabin the beds and tables and stools were handmade from the forest close by. In many cabins there were no beds whatever: skins of deer, buffalo, or bear were spread on the ground to sleep on. Mattresses or pillows were stuffed with feathers or the down of the cat-tail or the milkweed. The cooking-utensils were an iron pot, a hoe or sheet of tin for baking, and a few knives and pewter spoons.

In the towns and in the better houses more beautiful and convenient things were common. Chairs, beds, and bureaus

A Specimen of Colonial Wall Paper

Wall paper was very rare in colonial times. Until 1765 all of it had to be brought from Europe. But it was well made, and the designs were beautiful and interesting, as this specimen shows

were made by skilled workmen from maple, birch, oak, and mahogany. Well-to-do people had a good supply of well-made furniture, with a spinning-wheel, a loom, candlesticks, and dishes of wood, earthenware, and pewter. There was also an assortment of tools, for the farmer had to do much of his own carpentering, blacksmithing, and shoemaking.

The mansions of wealthy merchants and planters were often beautifully furnished with goods ordered from England. They were graced by beds, chairs, sofas, desks, and highboys made by Chippendale, Hepplewhite, and Sheraton. Quantities of silver, glass, and china were sent over from France and England for those who could afford them. Grandfather's clocks, and beds with high canopies, and picturesque wall paper made the rooms lovely. The woodwork was often exquisitely carved and painted to look like ivory; but the floors were usually rougher than those in modern mansions.

Heat was supplied by fireplaces, the one in the kitchen serving also as cookstove. They did not warm the rooms thoroughly; a small boy standing close to the fire found his face burning hot and his back a-shiver. In 1742 Benjamin Franklin

THE FIREPLACE IN PAUL REVERE'S HOUSE, BUILT BETWEEN 1650 AND 1680

Revere lived in this house from 1770 to 1800. It has been restored to its colonial appearance and is still standing. From a painting by Scott White

invented a sort of metal stove which sent more heat into the room and less up the chimney, but not many people used it.

Since there were no matches, fire had to be made with a flint and tinder. This was hard to do, especially on a damp day. For that reason the fire in the fireplace was kept alive day and night, winter and summer. If it went out, the children were sent to the neighbors to borrow some fire. Aside from the fireplace, candles of tallow or wax were used for light, with occasional lamps of whale oil. Because of the poor lights and because the people were always tired from a hard day's work, everybody went to bed early, and because there was much to do they got up at daybreak.

2. Food and Clothing

Clothing was simple and rough. Servants and slaves were lucky if they could get some of their masters' cast-off garments. The frontiersmen made the most of hides and skins, the booty of their hunting. The most common clothes were made of "homespun," cloth of wool or flax made by the mother and daughters of the family. If they were skilled, these clothes had a sturdy strength and wearing quality of their own, but they were not very well tailored. Sometimes a touch of color and variety was added by dyeing the cloth with butternut juice or indigo. Clothes were worn year after year until completely worn out; then the woolen rags were made into rugs.

Wealthy people, of course, bought costly raiment from overseas. Not many could have such finery as William Beverley of Virginia ordered: for himself some round-toed pumps, kid gloves, a beaver hat, a great riding-coat, silk stockings, riding-breeches, and a fine broadcloth suit; for his wife silk shoes, pear-colored silk stockings, kid gloves, straw hats, and a whalebone coat.

Food. By 1763 there were no more "starving times," for food was more plentiful now in the colonies than in England. Those who lived near the sea had plenty of fish, clams, and oysters. The forests were still full of deer, wild turkeys, and rabbits. The farms were stocked with cattle, sheep, and pigs. Every farm and every town house had its kitchen garden well-filled with vegetables and fruit. Tomatoes were thought poisonous and were used only as ornaments; but the potato, brought from South America to Europe and from Europe to North America, had become common. Only the wealthy had rare spices, fruits, and wines from abroad; most people were fairly content with plenty of meat, game, corn meal, rye or wheat bread, and honey, molasses, or maple sugar for sweetening.

Tea and coffee were imported from abroad. New England was famous for its cider and rum. Beer was made in New York and Pennsylvania, and the South produced many kinds of brandy. The frontiersmen on the slopes of the Appalachians made whisky from their corn and rye, but it was a strong drink and ruinous to the stomach. Milk and water were the staple drinks of the farming population everywhere.

Cooking was hard work then, for kitchens had few conveniences. Fuel and water must be carried in, and ashes out. Food was boiled in heavy iron kettles swung over the open fire, or roasted in the ashes, or baked in a Dutch oven. Poor people served their meals in wooden trenchers, and one mug or plate had to do duty for several children. But even with these primitive conditions, people taught their children table manners and insisted on quiet, respectful behavior.[1]

[1] The hours for meals were not very different from those of today. Breakfast varied from 6 to 8 o'clock in summer and an hour later in winter, dinner was from 12 to 2, and supper was from 5 to 8. Sometimes fashionable people did not have dinner until 3 or 4 o'clock in the afternoon, but this was rare. Most people had to work hard with their hands, and they needed a hearty meal at midday.

3. Work and Play

The one thing that the New World possessed in abundance was fertile land. Food could be grown or domestic animals raised on it, fuel could be cut, and often game could be shot there. All this, however, required work and plenty of it.

Farming. In general it was easy to acquire land. It was the custom in New England to give each new settler fifty acres of land, and in New Jersey and Pennsylvania even more. Virginia gave fifty acres for each laborer brought in. Conditions for acquiring land were easy in all the colonies. Farming, therefore, was the almost universal industry. And farm labor was then much more difficult than now, because the tools were so poor. Agricultural tools were little better in 1763 than they were in Egypt when the pyramids were built. The plows were made of wood, except for a metal point and share. They were pulled by slow, lumbering oxen. All grain was cut with a sickle or a scythe. The grain had to be separated from the chaff by throwing it on a floor, and beating it with wooden sticks called flails. It was slow, hard work.

Then the tools and furniture must be mended, if not made, by the farmer and his boys. There were shoes to be made or repaired, and snowshoes in the North. Wood must be cut in the forest, drawn to the house, sawed and split, and piled up for future use. Many farmers made shingles, clapboards, tubs, barrels, nails, and other things to sell or to send to the nearest port for exchange.

Housework. The women worked just as hard. Housework was a huge task — the cooking, washing, ironing, and keeping the house and garden in order. The women and girls must also make and mend all the clothing. This meant combing out the cotton as it came from the field, or the wool from the sheep's back, or the flax from the retting-pool;

spinning it into thread or yarn, weaving the threads into cloth, and then cutting and sewing the cloth. The mother and the daughters must also make or help to make candles, soap, butter and cheese, and all the preserves and canned fruit. They often made brooms, sanded the floor, picked and cleaned the chickens for the table, knitted the long stockings used by the men and boys as well as their own, and spun and wove a chest of linen for each girl in the family. In the North the women in a household had to do all this themselves, for there were few servants. In the South there were slaves, but they must all be taught and supervised by the mistress.

Other Kinds of Work. The few people who were not farmers were mainly busy with fishing, shipping, and manufacturing. In New England, perhaps a thousand ships and ten thousand men were engaged in the fishing, and another large group made the fishing ships and kept them repaired. Others made trading vessels, and made them so well that Yankee ships became famous. Many Yankee sea captains filled their stanch ships, with their masts of straight New England pine, with wheat, lumber, and shingles; and, after selling the cargo in England, sold the ship also at a good profit.[1]

The colonists did little manufacturing, and what little they did was crude; for it was done mainly on the farms or plantations on rainy days and winter evenings. Shoes and hats, nails and shingles, and paper and cloth were indeed made. But when these products reached any considerable amount the manufacturers in England became alarmed lest

[1] The importance of this industry may be seen from the following numbers of ships entering from foreign ports and leaving the colonies for countries abroad in 1760:

	Ships Entering	Ships Leaving
New England	846	1130
New York and Pennsylvania	772	833
Southern colonies	1326	1500

the colonists should take away some of their business. They appealed to Parliament to stop American manufacturing. In 1732 England restricted the making of hats, and in 1750 the manufacture of iron. These laws stirred up the colonists as unjust, and they were not always obeyed.

The Professions. There were only a few ministers, doctors, lawyers, and teachers in colonial times. The minister was held in high esteem in the New England colonies and some of the middle colonies, and since he was often a very learned man he supplied the lack of other professional men to some extent. Young men who wanted to go to college went to him for their Latin and Greek; his tutoring took the place of high-school training. Most of the schoolmasters (there were few women teachers) were badly trained or not trained at all. There were a few good lawyers, but many of the people regarded them as shrewd but not very honest. The few doctors were poorly trained. The ministers were well trained at Harvard, Yale, or some other college, but there were no medical or law colleges.

Play. Our colonial ancestors played less than modern Americans, but they were not unhappy. There was so much hard work to be done that when the day's task was finished they were usually glad to go to bed. They found their chief joy in working and in realizing that they were making progress with the tasks they had set themselves.

Nevertheless there were many amusements. Men and boys enjoyed hunting and fishing. In New England there were fine shad and salmon at the falls of the rivers. In the South there was fox-hunting with horses and dogs, as in England. Horse-racing was common, and there were famous races near New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, Williamsburg, and Charleston. Skating and other winter sports enlivened the Northern winters, and here the Indians took up white men's sports and became very swift and daring.

On "training day" the men gathered in the towns and had practice in marching and the use of firearms under orders. These days were field days as well, with running, jumping, wrestling, boxing, and pitching quoits. Fairs were common, especially in the middle and Southern colonies, and here also there were athletic contests.

Indoor amusements were less common. Some played cards, a few had billiard tables, and now and then there was a wandering mountebank with trained horses or dogs or a Punch and Judy show. Christmas week was a period of great rejoicing for white and colored alike in the South. In New England the great day of the year was Thanksgiving, with its solemn church service for a public recognition of favors in the morning and its great family reunions and feasts in the afternoon.

The Reverend William Bentley of Salem, Massachusetts, took the trouble to put down in his diary the games played by the children of his day. As soon as winter, with its skating and sleighing, was over, the boys began to play marbles. The marbles were all imported from England and were clay-colored, except some black and white spotted ones called "gaydoes." After marbles came top-spinning, and then bat and ball. The ball was made of rags covered with leather; the bat was two or three feet long and was flat on one side and round on the other. In the autumn boys and girls both flew paper kites with long tails. Football was also played in the fall, but the more gently bred thought this game very rough and preferred handball. Prisoner's base, wrestling, and quoit-throwing were also popular with boys.

Weddings and Funerals. Marriages were great events for the whole neighborhood. Girls were often married at about the age of a sophomore in a modern high school. Families were large — sometimes fourteen, twenty, or, in extreme cases, twenty-five children. The wedding feast was

a great affair, often with a dance following and cards for the older people. If the newly married couple lived on the frontier, the neighbors came and put up the log cabin in an all-day "house-raising," while the women prepared the picnic dinner close by. And everybody — men, women, and children [1] — would have games, jokes, and a good time.

It is strange to think of funerals as times of feasting. But in those days, both in the Old World and the New, the bereaved family were expected to do much entertaining at such times. Great dinners were common in the middle and Southern colonies. Expensive gifts — gloves or mourning rings or brooches — were given the guests. Cases were known of people who spent so much money in giving an elaborate funeral that they were poor ever after.

Projects and Enrichment

1. Read about colonial agriculture in J. S. Sanford's *Story of Agriculture in the United States*, chaps. v, vi. Then, imagining yourself a younger son sent to the colonies to establish yourself, with a capital of £1000, tell the class which colony you would select for farming, and why.

2. Show the good and bad sides of the system of labor based on indentured servants. Read *Our First Century*, by G. C. Eggleston, chap. xxii.

3. Compare and contrast slaves and indentured servants with respect to their original home, how the colonists secured them, the work they did, the freedom they enjoyed, their treatment by owners, and their outlook on life.

[1] In colonial times children were expected to be so quiet that perhaps anything about their manners ought to be placed in a quiet footnote rather than in the middle of the page. For instance, one famous book on how children should behave told how to invite a person to dinner. The child was to say, "Sir, you shall oblige me very much if you will do me the honour to take my poor dinner with me." Boys and girls were taught also to bow as they entered or left the schoolroom and to bow to everybody whom they met on the road.

4. Comment on the good and bad sides of the apprenticeship system as used in colonial times. Has the system entirely disappeared?

5. Read "Slavery in the Colonies," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. xviii.

6. Make two lists of games and sports: one for 1750 and one for 1930. Some will appear in both lists. Which is longer? Why?

7. What is the oldest house in your neighborhood? How old is it? Is there anything of historical interest in it?

8. Are there enough antiques in your town to warrant a loan exhibition at the schoolhouse?

9. Read "Traveling by Stagecoach," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 134–139; read also "Two Centuries of the Post Office" and "Pioneer Travelers of a Hundred Years," in John T. Faris's *When America was Young*, chaps. v, ix.

4. Education, Religion, and Government

Perhaps these three phases of life do more than any other three to fix the type of culture that a people makes for itself. Fortunately, although the colonists lacked so many things, their education, religion, and government compared very well with that of the people in Europe that they had left behind. In fact, it was often better. They left to the Americans of today a fine tradition in this respect.

But despite their good standard, there were many boys and girls who never went to school. In the newer parts of the colonies the people were so busy clearing the forests, building homes, fighting the Indians, and earning a living that they had neither time nor energy to spend on educating their children. Such boys and girls learned to read at home from the Bible and the almanac or, if their parents were careless or ignorant, they did not learn at all.

New England had the most schools. In Massachusetts and New Hampshire the laws required every town of fifty families to appoint a teacher of reading and writing. In Connecticut

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQ
RSTUVWXYZ
Let the sweet work of prayer and praise employ my
Youngest breath; but be prepared for longer days or
Fit for earlier death. Phebe Esther CoPP aged 8 1822
This Work I did
To let you See
What care my
Parents took of me

A Sampler

Although little girls had usually only enough schooling to enable them to read and write, their practical education was very thorough. They were often taught to knit when only four years old, and could do all kinds of fancy sewing, knitting, and weaving by the time they were fifteen. This sampler, although of later date, is like many made in colonial times to show skill in needlework. Can you do such cross-stitch? Have you inherited a sampler? Old samplers are now very valuable

every town of seventy families must do likewise. The people were sometimes too poor to do this, but there were many schools established. In the middle colonies the children were often educated in church schools or in private schools. The Pennsylvania Germans and Quakers and the New York Episcopalians often had schools connected with their churches. In the Southern colonies there were almost no public schools, but the planters there employed "tutors" to educate their families.

Colonial boys and girls were troubled by very few subjects. They were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, and the catechism. A few boys went on into higher

subjects in mathematics and grammar, Latin, Greek, and geography. Discipline in these schools was very strict, and there was much flogging. The dunce cap and other punishments, now unknown in American schools, were common. But at recess the boys and girls played hopscotch, tag, cat's cradle, and singing games like "London Bridge is falling down," just as merrily as they do today.

Colleges. The colleges of colonial times gave instruction of about the grade that is now given in our better high schools. Boys went at about the age of twelve. Most of these colleges were started for the training of ministers, and show how anxious our ancestors were to have educated clergymen. The eight oldest colleges, founded before the Revolution, were

Harvard, at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1636.

William and Mary, at Williamsburg, Virginia, in 1693.

Yale, at New Haven, Connecticut, 1701.

College of New Jersey (now called Princeton), at Princeton, 1746.

College of Philadelphia (now the University of Pennsylvania), 1749.

King's College (now called Columbia), in New York City, 1754.

Rhode Island College (now called Brown), at Providence, 1764.

Dartmouth, at Hanover, New Hampshire, 1769.

Books and newspapers helped to educate people, although they were not so common as they are today. Paper was expensive, and books were rare and treasured. They were read and re-read and almost learned by heart. In 1763 there were thirty or forty newspapers, all very small and devoted to the last news from Europe or the legislature and to advertisements. Libraries were not common, even in rich and comfortable homes. William Byrd of Virginia had a famous one containing over three thousand volumes.

Harvard College in 1767

From an engraving by Paul Revere

The College of William and Mary as it appeared about 1732

The picture shows the substantial buildings and neat grounds that had succeeded frontier crudeness by that time. The one-horse carriage with two wheels was the most common kind of vehicle used. (From an old print)

Religion. Religion was very important indeed. The two most powerful churches were the Congregational in New England and the Episcopal in the middle and Southern colonies. Besides these two sects, there were Presbyterians, Quakers, Catholics, Baptists, and some Methodists, with several German and French Protestant sects. At first the two stronger churches had attempted to force the weaker sects out of existence, but this tendency died out in course of time. By 1763 the American idea that any man should be allowed to worship in the way that he believed right was the general rule.

Exterior of an Old New England Church

Old North Church, or Christ Church, Boston, built in 1723. This is the church in which the lights were hung that sent William Dawes and Paul Revere on their famous ride before the battle of Lexington. Do you know Longfellow's poem? The church is still in use, the oldest in Boston

The "meetinghouse" in a New England town was its central and most important building. At first these churches were plain, unpainted, and without tower or steeple. As the town grew, however, the people added such architectural grace as they knew how to give it, and in time the meetinghouses came to be truly beautiful. The inside was at first very plain and even uncomfortable. Important people, like deacons and government officials, had square box pews toward the front; the

side pews were for the common people. The young people sat in the gallery, the boys on one side and the girls on the other. There were no lights and no heat, but the women had footstoves in winter. The minister, who was the most important man in each town, preached sermons often lasting two hours, to which the people listened with great interest and which they discussed earnestly at home. After morning service there was a noonday meal, when the grown-ups quietly discussed their affairs and the children kept a respectful silence. Then another service and another long sermon, and the people went home refreshed for another week's hard work. This sort of Sunday would not suit many Americans today, but it seems to have quite suited the New Englanders then.

The Episcopal churches were often of brick, and very beautiful. Here the sermon was short, and often there was an organ and a choir, which many New Englanders thought sinful. The Baptists and the Presbyterians were growing rapidly in 1763, especially in the South. The Quakers were of course strong in Pennsylvania, the Catholics in Maryland, and the Dutch Reformed Church in New York. Some people did not go to church, but they were hardly thought respectable by their neighbors. All the respected people belonged to some church.

The king of England could not, of course, look after his thirteen colonies in person; hence he had for that purpose a committee called the Board of Trade. This board looked after commerce with America, kept account of laws passed there, and carried on a correspondence with the governors. The governor was the king's representative, and he vetoed laws that he thought the king would object to. He appointed many officers, such as judges for colonial courts, and commanded the militia when it was called into service. Over taxation, however, he had no control. The legislature of

Methods of Punishment used in Colonial Times: the Pillory and the Whipping Post

Punishments were more severe in colonial times than they are now. Many offenses that now lead merely to a fine or imprisonment were then punished by death. In Virginia as many as twenty-seven offenses were punished in this way. Sometimes people were "branded," or marked with a red-hot iron; sometimes they were whipped, or had their ears cut, or were made to sit on a wooden bench in the center of the town with their feet and hands fastened between two bars of wood. This device was called the stocks. Many other penalties were also inflicted in public. Crowds assembled to see a thief hanged, just as they might go to see a circus parade today

each colony decided how much money should be raised, the kind of taxes, and how the income should be spent.

These legislatures were usually composed of two bodies: one group was called the council, and had about twelve members. These advised the governor and acted as the highest court. The second group was the Assembly, or House of Representatives. It was elected by the people, and passed the laws for the whole colony.

There were three different systems of local government:

1. In New England the farms were small, and the people lived close together in towns. This made it easy for the citi-

The United States, showing the Frontier Line in 1760

zens to hold meetings. They met in "town meeting" and voted to tax themselves for schools, roads, and the support of the poor. There were counties, but they did little except to hold courts for trying prisoners.

2. The people of the South lived on big plantations, far apart. So they had county meetings instead of town meetings. The people came on horseback, on foot, or in boats. They voted on their local affairs, they held court, and when the business was done they gossiped, told stories, "swapped" horses, held athletic contests, and listened to speeches. The poor were usually cared for by the parish, which in the South generally meant the officers of the Episcopal churches.

3. The middle colonies adopted a mixture of these two kinds of local government. Each community worked out the combination that suited its needs best.

Not more than one person in twelve or fifteen could vote in the colonies. No one thought of such a thing as women's voting, and most people did not think it proper that people without property should vote.

Project and Enrichment

1. Read "Sunday in the Colonies," in Alice Morse Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*, chap. xv, and "Sunday in the Colonies," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 125–129.

2. Compare and contrast church buildings in colonial times with church buildings of our day with respect to shape, size, seats, heat, light, appearance outside and inside, and location.

3. Explain why the Catholics were most numerous in Maryland, the Quakers and German sects in Pennsylvania, the Episcopalians in Virginia and South Carolina, the Congregationalists in New England, and the Baptists, Presbyterians, and Methodists in the back-country districts of the South.

4. Do not miss seeing the pictures in J. Carroll Mansfield's *High Lights of History*, pp. 136–140.

Before Leaving Division One

1. Be able to do the following things:
   a. Tell a brief, straightforward story of Division One.
   b. Identify, in a sentence or two, Wolfe, Montcalm, Braddock, King Philip, John Winthrop, James Oglethorpe, Blackbeard, Thomas Dale, James I, Charles I, John Carver, Lord Baltimore, Robert Dinwiddie, Governor Stuyvesant, Henry Hudson, Governor Berkeley.
   c. Explain the importance of the following:
      (1) Settlement of Jamestown, 1607.
      (2) Quebec settled by the French, 1608.
      (3) Slavery introduced into Virginia, 1619.
      (4) The settlement of Plymouth, 1620.
      (5) The settlement of Boston, 1630.
      (6) The New England Confederation, 1643.
   d. Make a map showing the English colonies and the French claims in 1750. This is to be done without assistance from books or maps. Show the claims of England, Spain, and France. Name the chief physical features. Locate the important cities. Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River for this test.

2. Prepare for your notebook
   a. A *Hall of Fame* for Division One. This will be a list of the most important persons mentioned in this division. Let each pupil first make a list of twenty persons who, he feels, should be in the *Hall*. The list to be placed in the notebook might be determined by vote.

3. Before the class
   a. Give a brief report on one of the twelve books listed on pages 5–7.
   b. Give a floor talk or write a brief, well-organized discussion on
      (1) A Sunday in Colonial New England.
      (2) Amusements in Colonial Times.
      (3) Colonial Colleges.
      (4) Systems of Labor in the Colonies.
      (5) Making a Living in Colonial Times.
      (6) Ways of Punishing Offenders against the Law.
      (7) Kinds of Houses used by the Colonists.

4. A "round table" on books and stories is a class exercise in which each member of the group advertises in a few words a book or story he has recently read. Conduct a round table on the books and stories the class has read from the Story-Book Library for Division One or on similar ones from the home library or the public library. In advertising the book you have read, aim to make the members of the class want to read it.

Division Two

The Colonies become a Nation, 1763–1789

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Foreword

When George Washington died in 1799 the French army parading in Paris draped its flags in mourning. The flags of the British navy in the English Channel were lowered to half-mast as a sign of grief. England mourning for a man who had led a long war against — England! Moreover, English writers since that time have praised Washington very highly. One of them says of him, "No nobler figure ever stood in the forefront of a nation's life." Calm, silent, patient, and with endurance, courage, and good judgment, Washington was one of the world's greatest men.

Here in the United States we have always believed that Washington was a man to love and imitate. One of our states was named for him; the capital city bears his name; innumerable counties, streets, squares, schools, and colleges bear the name of this splendid man.

Why do the people of foreign countries, as well as the people of the United States, value Washington so highly? In the following pages you ought to be able to discover the secret.

George Washington

From a painting by Gilbert Stuart made when Washington was about sixty-four years of age. The original painting is now in the New York Public Library

Two Twelve-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

Become familiar through constant use with as many of the twelve books below as you can while you are studying Division Two. Each of them gives interesting information about the topics treated in the text. Are you already acquainted with any in the list? Does your school library or your public library have any of them?

1. *The Story of the Declaration of Independence*, by Mabel and Henry Carlton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The title suggests the contents.

2. *Sword of Liberty*, by Frank and Cortelle Hutchins. The Century Co.

Stories of two revolutions, the American and the French. Both are well told. Inasmuch as your text mentions the latter, its story will be valuable to you.

3. *The Story of John Paul Jones*, by Chelsea C. Fraser. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

An account of our navy in its earliest days, as well as an interesting story of the life of a famous naval hero.

4. *On the Trail of Washington*, by F. T. Hill. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of the Revolutionary War. Contains many illustrations — some in color. The entire book can be read with interest and profit.

5. *The French War and the Revolution (1745–1782)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume III of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Contains material on such topics as Braddock's defeat, the siege of Quebec, the Stamp Act, the Boston Tea Party, and the leading battles of the Revolutionary War.

6. *Episodes from The Winning of the West*, by Theodore Roosevelt. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Contains material on Daniel Boone and the Long Hunters, the Revolutionary War in the West and the settlements in the back-country up to about 1790.

7. *Washington: A Virginia Cavalier*, by W. H. Mace. Rand McNally & Company.

A book that you will enjoy. The story is told in a simple and interesting manner. Much good material on the Revolutionary War.

8. *The Story of Benjamin Franklin*, by Clare Tree Major. Another of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

An interesting story of the life of a remarkable man. Contains much material not found elsewhere.

9. *Nathan Hale*, by Jean Christie Root. One of the True Stories of Great American Series. The Macmillan Company.

The story of the life of a man who was sorry that he had but one life to give for his country. You will enjoy reading it.

10. *Stories of the American Revolution*, by Everett T. Tomlinson. D. Appleton and Company.

A collection of true stories about the humbler folk of Revolutionary days. They portray the sacrifice and suffering of the people in the everyday walks of life.

11. *Young People's History of the American Revolution*, by Everett T. Tomlinson. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of the military phases of the Revolution. Some attention is given to causes and results.

12. *Camps and Firesides of the Revolution*, by A. B. Hart and Mabel Hill. The Macmillan Company.

Letters and other accounts written at the time, which show how people lived and thought in the eighteenth century.

II. A Story-Book Library

It is expected that one or more of the books listed below will be read by each member of the class while studying Division Two. It may be that you have already read some of them. If you have, tell the class something of what they are about. Do you know of any book that you would add to the list?

1. *A Girl of '76*, by Amy E. Blanchard. W. A. Wilde Company.

The early period of the Revolution is portrayed in this story.

2. *The Spirit of '76*, edited by Asa D. and Helen W. Dickinson. Doubleday, Page & Company.

Twenty-six stirring stories of Revolutionary days.

3. *A Patriot Lad of Old Boston*, by Russell G. Carter. Penn Publishing Company.

Boston during the British occupation in 1775.

4. *A Little Maid of Old Philadelphia*, by Alice T. Curtis. Penn Publishing Company.

Philadelphia during the Revolution.

5. *A Little Maid of Old New York*, by Alice T. Curtis. Penn Publishing Company.

Revolutionary days in New York during the time when the British were in control of the city.

6. *Brave Deeds of Revolutionary Soldiers*, by Robert B. Duncan. George W. Jacobs & Company.

Twelve stories dealing with events connected with Lexington, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, and other important places, as well as persons connected with the war.

7. *Long Knives*, by G. C. Eggleston. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

A tale of pioneer warfare, the expedition of Clark to Illinois, and the fall of Vincennes.

8. *The Young Continentals at Trenton*, by John T. McIntyre. Penn Publishing Company.

Deals with the preparations for defending New York City and describes the battle of Long Island, the crossing of the Delaware, and the capture of the Hessians.

9. *Lads and Lassies of Other Days*, by Lillian L. Price. Silver, Burdett and Company.

A collection of eleven stories dealing with the same number of important events, most of which occurred between 1763 and 1783. You will enjoy these stories.

10. *Revolutionary Stories retold from St. Nicholas.* The Century Co.

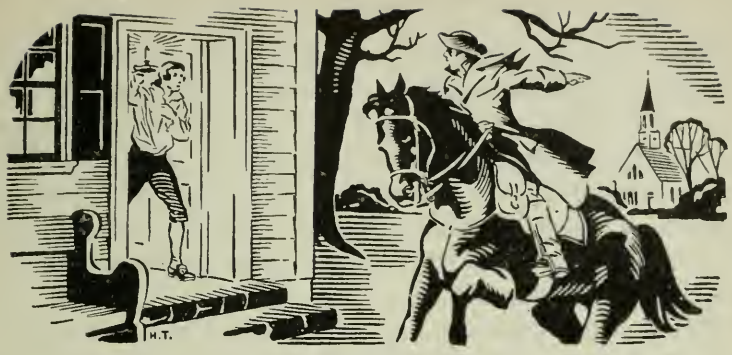
Eighteen well-told stories of the days and deeds of those who took part in the Revolutionary War. Contains many illustrations.

11. *The Noank's Log*, by W. O. Stoddard. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

An account of the American navy at the beginning of the Revolution and the operations of privateers during the years between 1775 and 1783.

12. *Morgan's Men*, by John P. True. Little, Brown & Company.

Describes the engagements between Morgan and Tarleton at Cowpens and at other points in the South during the Revolutionary War.



Division Two

The Colonies become a Nation, 1763-1789

UNIT I. EVENTS THAT DIVIDED THE COLONIES FROM THE MOTHER COUNTRY

If we had lived in the American colonies during the thirteen years just after 1763, we should have seen some sort of quarrel between England and her colonies nearly every year. It will help to understand how the colonists felt and why they acted as they did if we remember a few things that had gone before.

1. How England treated her Colonies before 1763

What did the Colonists hope to Find in America? Most of the colonists had come over to America to get away from something in England. Some hoped to get away from a tyrannical king; some, to escape religious persecution; still others, to avoid poverty and hunger.

As we already know, the colonists for the most part lived on farms. Except in a few towns they were far from neighbors and consequently had to take care of themselves or

starve to death. They were not accustomed to having police officers or soldiers to keep them in order; nor were they accustomed to being taxed except by their own town or county meeting or by the legislature of the colony. Whatever taxes were voted were very small. They had to be, for the people were poor. Moreover, most of the colonists were English, and it is the nature of the English, as of many other peoples, to wish to govern themselves.

The colonies were now far less dependent on England than they had once been. By 1763, indeed, they were sending shiploads of lumber, furs, tobacco, indigo, and wheat to England every year. They still brought most manufactured things from Europe, but they could produce the really necessary things for themselves. They had also learned to protect themselves from the Indians and had, often without much direction from England, taken an active part in the four wars with the French. Benjamin Franklin had suggested at the beginning of the French and Indian War that the colonies join in one big group, which would have made a sort of nation of them. They did not do it, but some of the wiser men began to think whether that would not be a good plan.

England's Attitude. If the colonists were able to take care of themselves so well, why did not the mother country set them free? The answer is very simple: England expected to make a profit from her colonies. All nations in those days believed that colonies existed for the parent country, not for the colonists themselves. They did not know that a way can be found to make both sides profit. They did not know enough about economics, the science that explains such things, to realize this.

Two classes of people benefited greatly by the American trade as England regulated it:

1. The English shippers were helped, because the laws said that tobacco and some other goods must be landed in

England first before being sold anywhere in Europe, and that everything taken to the colonies must go from England, and in English ships.

2. The English merchants were helped, because the colonists were prevented by a heavy tax from buying many things, such as sugar and molasses, from other countries. This gave almost all the trade to English merchants, and they made a good profit.

The colonists often disobeyed these laws by trading directly with other European nations and by bringing goods into the colonies without paying the duties. This latter practice, called smuggling, was very common in the colonies, and some of the most respected people did it. The king's officers, placed at the various ports to collect the duties, found themselves helpless, for the colonists aided one another to disobey the law. The duties could not be collected, and after a time the government gave up the attempt in many places.

But in 1760 the government decided to enforce the law. The tax-collectors were told to get "writs of assistance," which were papers issued by the courts ordering everybody to help the collector to find the smuggled goods. Armed with such a writ, a collector could enter a shop, a house, a barn, or an office and hunt for goods on which the tax had not been paid. The plan was first suggested for Massachusetts, where the people were much opposed to it; a large part of their prosperity depended upon this smuggling. A young lawyer, James Otis, claimed that the courts had no right to issue such writs, and that Parliament could not tax the colonies without their consent. The speech he made found such general approval that writs of assistance were seldom afterwards issued.

2. How England treated her Colonies after 1763

George III came to the throne in 1760. He was young, poorly educated, narrow-minded, very conscientious, and sure that he was right. He made George Grenville his right-hand man in Parliament; and between them they persuaded Parliament in 1763 to pass three important laws relating to (1) navigation or colonial trade, (2) an army in America, and (3) a stamp act.

1. The new Navigation Law (as trading-by-sea laws were called) taxed more goods and taxed them higher. And this law was to be strictly enforced, by warships if necessary. The colonial merchants knew this would cut down their business, and they went quietly on with their smuggling.

2. An army of ten thousand soldiers was to be established in America. Grenville said that these troops were needed to protect the Americans from the French and Indians; but the colonists thought it strange that the army should be sent over after the French and Indians had been defeated and the treaty signed in 1763. They feared that the real purpose was to help in collecting the taxes. They objected to having to pay part of the soldiers' expenses.

3. In 1764 it was announced that Parliament might pass a new tax law, called the Stamp Act, which was to help toward paying the costs of the French and Indian War. Now, the colonists themselves had run into debt during that war, and they did not want to have to help England to pay her debt as well. They protested earnestly. They sent petitions to England against it; but these got no attention, and in 1765 the law was passed. It said that stamps must be put on all newspapers, on all legal documents, and on bills of sale and deeds. The cost of the stamps varied from a penny to about fifty dollars, according to the importance of the papers or documents being used.

Stamps made at the Time of the Stamp Act

For a little while the colonies were quiet, but it was the quiet before a storm. The colonists agreed together not to use the stamps. The officers who were to sell the stamps were compelled by public opinion to resign; in Massachusetts the people smashed their windows, which was an effective argument. When the time came for the law to go into effect, nobody sold a stamp and nobody bought one. The law was a dead letter from the start.

Massachusetts suggested a Stamp Act Congress, which met in New York in 1765 with delegates from nine colonies. The Congress protested against the Act and declared that colonies could be taxed only by their own legislatures. The next year the colonies imported only half as much goods from England as usual. Thousands of English workmen were thrown out of their jobs. The English merchants began to complain that the Stamp Act cut down their business, and many of them joined the colonists in asking for its repeal.

Repeal of the Stamp Act. In the face of so much opposition, both in America and in England, Parliament gave way. It repealed the Stamp Act in 1766, but at the same time it declared its opinion that Parliament had the right to pass any laws that it pleased about America. The news of

An Artist's Idea of how Patrick Henry appeared when speaking against the Stamp Act

The legislature of Virginia was in session when the news of the Stamp Act came. One of the members, Patrick Henry, urged that the legislature condemn the Stamp Act and declare that Virginia could not be taxed by Parliament. Many members did not want to go so far, and a hot debate resulted. Henry was a fiery orator and made a speech which many American boys used to commit to memory. He said: "Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles the First, his Cromwell; and George the Third ["Treason!" shouted the Speaker. "Treason, treason!" echoed from different parts of the House] *may profit by their example.* If *this* be treason, make the most of it!"

the repeal was received in the colonies with great joy: bells were rung, cannon were fired, and feasts were given. The Stamp Act quarrel was important for several reasons:

1. It aroused dislike of England in America and set people to talking about their rights.

2. It resulted in the Stamp Act Congress, which showed the colonists how to get together in case of danger.

3. It showed the colonists that they were powerful enough to force Parliament to withdraw a taxation law.

The Townshend Act, 1767. The uproar caused by the Stamp Act had hardly quieted down before news came to America of a new taxation scheme. Grenville was out of power; but a new officer of George III, Charles Townshend, thought the colonists would not object to paying taxes on glass, paper, tea, and colors used in making paint. The money raised thus was to be used to pay the salaries of the governors and judges in the colonies. If the governors and judges got their salaries from England instead of from the colonial legislatures, they would pay less attention to what the colonists wanted.

To this Act there was an even greater objection, and an angry dispute arose between Parliament and the colonies. The taxes were still uncollected at the ports, and in September, 1768, General Gage was sent to Boston with troops. This made the colonists more angry than ever, and a number of colonies agreed not to buy goods brought from England at all. If merchants brought them in they were compelled to send them back. The hubbub was so great that in 1770 the Townshend Acts were all repealed except the tax on tea.

Committees of Correspondence. In 1772, at the suggestion of Samuel Adams, the Boston town meeting appointed a "Committee of Correspondence" to exchange letters with other towns and colonies about the troubles of the times. Soon there were committees all over the colonies writing to one another, and in that way people all over America came to be thinking and talking about the same things. One of their first subjects was the tea tax, which had been left when the other taxes were repealed. In order to make the colonists break their rule of not using English goods, the English arranged to have tea sold very cheaply in America, if only the Americans would pay the duty of threepence a pound. Agents were appointed to sell the tea in the colonies, and several shiploads of it were sent over to Charleston,

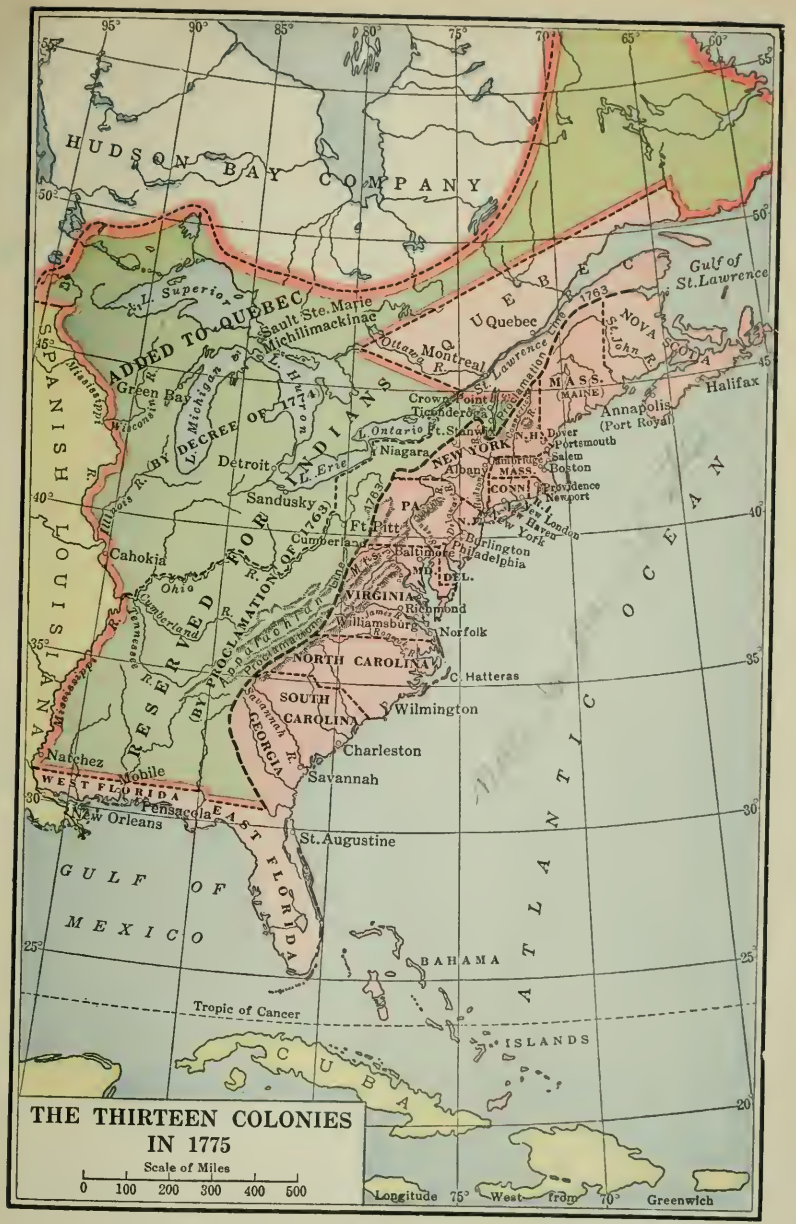
© Detroit Publishing Co.

Samuel Adams **John Hancock**

These portraits are from paintings by John Singleton Copley in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts

colonies made the same preparations. As month after month went by, the people feared more and more that the troubles would lead to war.

In April, 1775, General Gage sent soldiers from Boston to Concord, eighteen miles away, to destroy some powder that was stored there and to arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams, leading patriots, or colonial leaders. The secret leaked out, the people were warned by William Dawes and Paul Revere, and at daybreak there was a skirmish on the common at Lexington and the first bloodshed of the Revolution. Another little battle occurred at Concord, where the gunpowder was destroyed; but no Hancock and no Adams were found. On the return march the angry Massachusetts patriots swarmed from every farmhouse, shot at the soldiers from behind trees and walls, and killed and wounded without mercy. Without any formal declaration the war had begun.



THE THIRTEEN COLONIES IN 1775

Scale of Miles

0 100 200 300 400 500

Minutemen now hurried to Boston, and soon twenty thousand Americans were besieging General Gage in that city. The news that fighting had actually begun in Massachusetts was carried quickly throughout the colonies. It reached Philadelphia, where the Second Continental Congress met in May, 1775. That body decided to take charge of the troops around Boston and to make George Washington their commander. It had also to raise money and find supplies for the war.

Bunker Hill. Gage decided to fight his way out of the trap in which he found himself. His chief officer, General Howe, attacked the Americans on Breed's Hill on June 17, 1775. The Americans were defeated because their ammunition gave out, but it was a moral victory for their side, because of the valor of their defense. The battle, known in history as the battle of Bunker Hill, had two important results: it showed the Americans that a real war faced them, and it proved to them that they could fight successfully against regular British troops.

Driving the British Troops out of Boston. When Washington reached the American forces just outside Boston, he found an armed mob rather than an army. He immediately set to work to teach it how to drill and how to fight. Neither officers nor men knew much about real war. Washington trained the men in the art of fighting. There were difficulties in the way; but the men were ready and able to learn, and Washington soon had an army instead of a mob.

Fortunately some ammunition and cannon came to the American forces during the winter after the battle of Bunker Hill. During the spring of 1775 Ethan Allen of Vermont had captured some English ammunition at Ticonderoga and Crown Point on Lake Champlain. The following winter, while the snow was on the ground, the much-needed supplies

The Minutemen gathering in Lexington

From "The Eve of the Revolution," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

were brought to Boston on sleds. A large quantity of powder, muskets, and bullets were also obtained on an English vessel which was captured north of Boston.

Thus the spring of 1776 found Washington with a fairly well-drilled army and sufficient supplies of ammunition.[1] The British, on the other hand, were already in distress. Washington's army prevented fuel and food from entering the city. So on March 17, 1776, Sir William Howe sailed away with his army and with a thousand Americans who

[1] In 1775–1776 two expeditions were sent into Canada in the hope that the Canadians might revolt against England and join the colonies. One expedition, under Richard Montgomery, went by Lake Champlain to Montreal; the other, under Benedict Arnold, went through Maine toward Quebec. Both expeditions were unsuccessful. The American army had to fight not only the British forces but also cold, hunger, and smallpox.

favored the British side of the dispute. After March 17 the city of Boston saw no more of English soldiers and English rule, and the rest of the Revolution was fought in other parts of the colonies.

4. How the Colonies Declared their Independence

Everywhere good men who wanted to do what was right were debating whether they should any longer be loyal subjects of King George. Some said Yes; some said No. Most people objected to separation; some wanted it; and between the two there was a large group who were doubtful. Then several things happened which turned the scales toward independence:

1. The more the people thought about the killing of Americans in Massachusetts by British soldiers, the more they felt that they could not remain English colonists.

2. When the king heard of the battle of Bunker Hill he declared that the Americans were "rebels," Parliament passed a law shutting up all American seaports, and under the direction of the king's governor in Virginia the port of Norfolk was burned to the ground.

3. During the winter of 1775–1776 a pamphlet called *Common Sense* was published by Thomas Paine. The pamphlet argued that it was time to stop debating about separation from England and take up arms.

4. In colony after colony the people became so angry with the king's governor that they drove him out. The people then had to set up a government of their own or else have no government at all. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and South Carolina led in making this change. When the new government was set up in Massachusetts, a printed proclamation was issued urging obedience to the new officers. The proclamation ended with "God save the people"

Drafting the Declaration of Independence

An artist's conception of the committee of Congress discussing the subject. The members of the committee were Robert R. Livingston of New York, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson. The Declaration was actually written by Jefferson

instead of "God save the King," as such proclamations had formerly done in all the English colonies.

5. In the spring of 1776 news came to America that England had hired twenty thousand Hessian troops to be used in forcing obedience to king and Parliament. The king's use of hired troops against his own people turned many hitherto loyal people against him.

The Declaration of Independence. While all this was going on, the Second Continental Congress at Philadelphia was still in session. North Carolina and Virginia and other colonies sent word to their delegates to declare the colonies

independent. Finally, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia suggested that the colonies do this, but that they unite into a confederation, since any one colony would be too weak to maintain itself. This very momentous question was referred to a committee, which drafted a Declaration of Independence, and the Congress adopted the Declaration on July 4, 1776.[1]

What this Action Meant. The Declaration contained a long list of things that the king had done, which the committee believed were good reasons for refusing longer to be loyal to him. Thomas Jefferson, the leading member of the committee, wrote into the Declaration:

> That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.

As soon as copies of the Declaration were printed they were sent out and read to crowds everywhere. Bells were rung, bonfires were lighted, and in New York the lead statue of George III was pulled down to be made into bullets to fight his power. Many people did not believe the Declaration was right, and some did not care; but those who did believe it were so enthusiastic that they carried the day. Henceforth the colonies ceased to be colonies, subject to the mother country: they became *states*, which govern themselves. They adopted the name "United States."

The day when the Declaration was adopted became the birthday of the nation, because

1. It resulted from the united action of the representatives of the colonies, and showed that they had become one people in a common cause.

[1] Although the Declaration was adopted on July 4, it was not signed by the members of Congress until August 2, but July 4 has always been celebrated as the date of American independence. A diary kept by a man in New Jersey in 1778 tells of celebrating July 4 as early as that year.

2. Since the Declaration cut the colonies loose from England, they must either go ahead and win their independence by war or be beaten and forced to submit to England. The Revolutionary War, or the War for Independence, was fairly begun.

Review, Project, and Enrichment

1. The best list of the causes of the war with England is found in the Declaration of Independence. Turn to this document in Appendix A and count the separate causes listed by Jefferson. Make a list of those that you have read about in this book. Underline in red the three that you think offer the best reasons for the Declaration.

2. The account on page 95 might lead you to believe that everybody was happy over the passing of the Declaration. Name some officers and other groups that were sad rather than happy.

3. List the signers of the Declaration whom you have met in previous sections of this book or in your general reading (see the list of signers in Appendix A). Tell in a few words anything that you have read about them. Which ones later became presidents of the United States?

4. Tell the story of the drafting and signing of the Declaration of Independence.

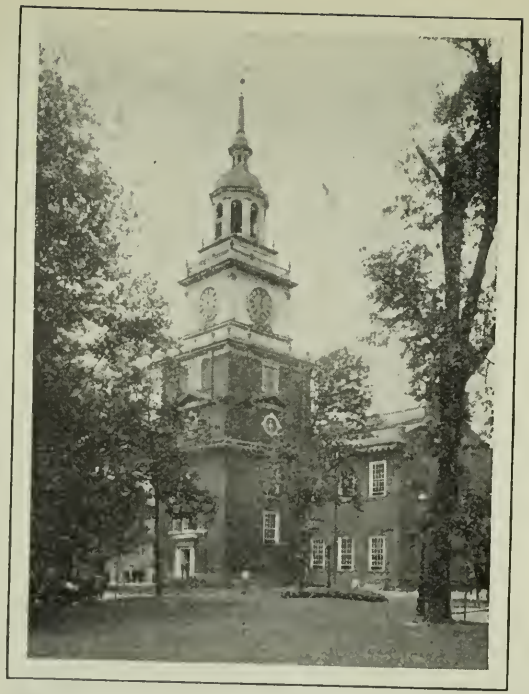
5. Show that the colonies were revolting against the English government rather than against the English people.

6. Show how the English victory over the French in 1763 hastened the struggle for independence.

7. Trace the movement toward union among the colonies. List the steps in the order of their occurrence. Begin with the New England Confederation in 1643.

8. Make two lists of the causes of the war. In one list place the remote causes and in the other the immediate causes.

9. Read "The Signers of the Declaration of Independence," by Mary V. Worstell, in *The Colonists and the Revolution* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 157–178. You will find a picture of each of the signers here.



Exterior and Interior of Independence Hall, Philadelphia, the Latter showing the Liberty Bell

The Liberty Bell was last rung when it was tolled for Chief Justice John Marshall, who died in 1835

UNIT II. THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

To most people who looked on from the outside in 1776, it seemed that England must win the war that now began. She had so much more money, so many more trained soldiers and officers, so many more ships, so much more of every kind of war supplies that victory must surely be hers. But the colonists knew the country in which the fighting must occur, and they were more interested than were the British soldiers and hired Hessians. And they had in George Washington a better leader than any English general sent against him.

The war on American soil consisted of four main campaigns, besides many little engagements that cannot be noticed in a short account.

1. The Middle-States Campaigns, 1776–1778

The War transferred to New York. After the British left Boston, there was little more fighting in New England. The New Englanders were free, therefore, from defending their homes and could fight or work wherever there was need.

Early in the summer of 1776 thirty thousand Hessians and British were landed on Staten Island in New York Harbor. Seven hundred ships were at hand to carry men and provisions and guns. The forces were commanded by two brothers, Admiral Lord Richard Howe and General Sir William Howe.[1] Washington, facing this vast array, had only eighteen thousand men, poorly armed, and no navy.

[1] General William Howe was the soldier who led the twenty-four men up the cliff at Quebec. Both the Howes, strange to say, were opposed to making war on the Americans. In fact, General Howe said that he would not take troops to America if asked; but later he agreed to, on the ground that he could not refuse to obey the king's orders. They both were more ready to make peace than to start war.

A flag carried by a company of Virginia minute men in 1775 and later

A flag supposed to have been carried by John Paul Jones in 1775. The mottoes were favorites in the colonies, and perhaps were added after 1775

The flag used by General George Washington at Cambridge in 1776. "It marked the real beginning of our national existence and continued to be the flag of the Revolution until the Continental Congress adopted the Stars and Stripes"

The flag adopted by Congress on June 14, 1777

EARLY AMERICAN FLAGS

Howe began the campaign by defeating the Americans in the battle of Long Island. The defeated army was in peril of being penned up and captured, but by quick action Washington got them out of immediate danger. On the night of August 29–30 he took his entire army with all its supplies across from Long Island to New York City in small boats. Part of the British army was only six hundred yards away, but not a move did Howe make until morning, and then it was too late.

Washington was not safe in New York. He knew that the most important thing for him to do was to keep an army together, whether it won victories or not. If he were to fight a great battle in the open field, his army might be completely captured and American independence would be lost. So he retreated north to Harlem, then farther north and across the Hudson into New Jersey, fighting little battles on the way. Howe captured Forts Washington and Lee on the two sides of the Hudson, but he let the little patriot army slip through his fingers.

The British now settled down in New York for a time, and Washington's army began to fall to pieces. Many of the men went home. Moreover, General Charles Lee, who was second in command, disobeyed orders and was finally captured by the British. Washington retreated slowly across New Jersey, followed by Howe, who had a far larger force. Money for buying supplies and paying the patriot army was so scarce that Robert Morris went from house to house in Philadelphia taking a collection in order to keep the army alive. At last Washington got across to the west side of the Delaware River, taking with him all the boats he could find. His little army — now numbering only four thousand men — was cold and hungry and had no adequate shelter for winter.

Howe, stopped by the lack of boats, took up winter quarters on the east side of the Delaware at Trenton. Nearly

three thousand people put themselves under his protection, for the American cause looked hopeless. But it was just at this moment that Washington struck a famous blow.

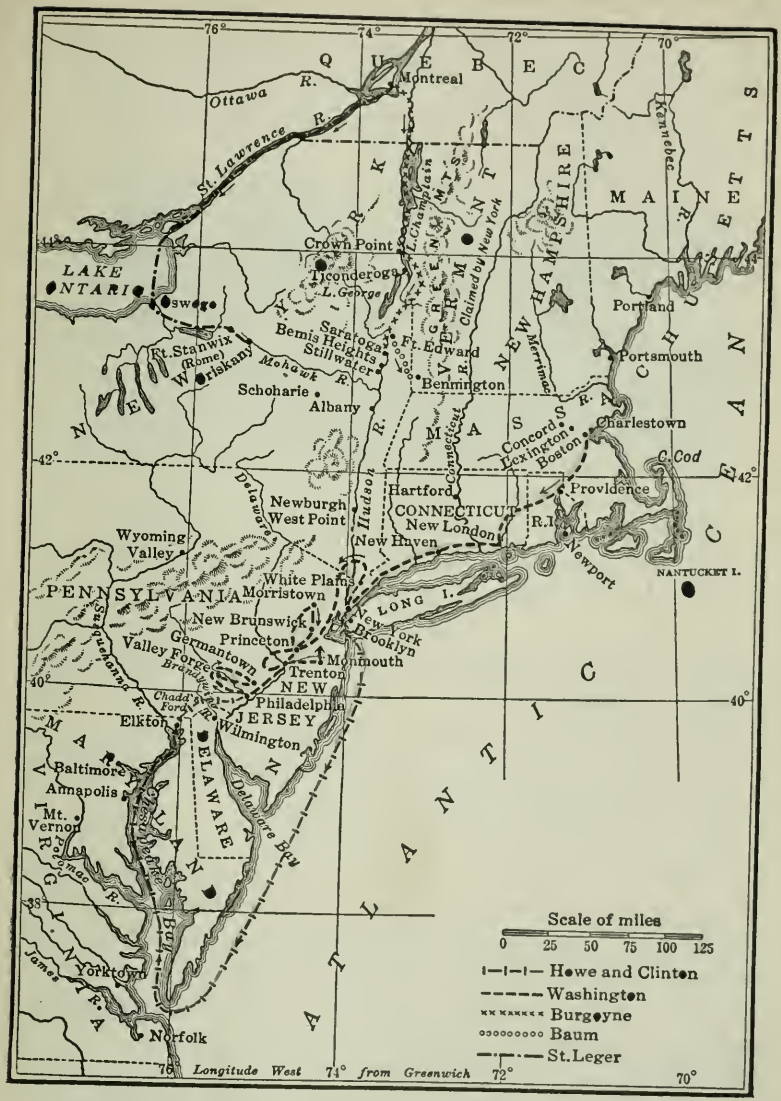
General Howe himself had gone back to New York to celebrate Christmas. The Hessian troops at Trenton were celebrating the holiday also. On Christmas night there was a terrible sleet storm, but the Hessians were merry within their snug quarters. While they drank and sang, Washington with a few picked men crossed the river, marched nine miles through the storm, and rushed into Trenton. The Hessians were completely surprised, and a thousand were taken prisoners. This was on December 26, 1776. It was so skillfully done that it put new heart into the Americans, and fresh troops began to come in. The English sent General Cornwallis, posthaste, down to New Jersey with reënforcements.

The Battle of Princeton, January 3, 1777. It was the intention of Cornwallis to catch the "old fox," as he termed Washington, but again the American leader did the unexpected. On the night of January 2, 1777, he left a small force in camp to keep the fires burning brightly and to keep up a sound as if the whole army were in its usual position. Then, with the greater part of his men, Washington slipped around in back of Cornwallis, defeated him, and escaped to some high land at Morristown where it would be difficult to follow. Years afterwards Cornwallis told Washington that nothing could surpass the skill with which the American army was led in New Jersey.

Review and Enrichment

1. Re-read this section until you can tell a straightforward story of the war in New York and New Jersey. Practice the story aloud to yourself or tell it to a schoolmate or to your father or mother.

2. What does the footnote on page 98 indicate about the feeling of some Englishmen concerning the war?



The British Campaign of 1777

3. Become acquainted with the persons mentioned in this section by listing them. Test your knowledge of each as you read over your list.

4. Would Washington resent being called an "old fox"? Give reasons for your answer.

5. Show how the experiences of the colonies in the French and Indian War helped them in the Revolution.

6. Did the American people stand by Washington all through the Revolution? How do you explain your answer?

7. Read "Capturing the Hessians," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 169–172, and "The Darkest Hour — Trenton and Princeton," in H. E. Marshall's *Story of the United States*, chap. lvi.

2. The Saratoga Campaign

In the spring of 1777 public attention was directed to another campaign, while Washington kept watch of the British at Morristown. At the War Office in London a plan was made to defeat the Americans by three movements which were to cut New England off from the rest of the colonies and bring together a great force that would quickly end the rebellion.

1. St. Leger was to land at Oswego, march through the forests in New York State, capture Fort Stanwix (now Rome), and march down the Mohawk to Albany.

2. General Howe was to meet St. Leger at Albany.

3. General Burgoyne was to march down from Canada along Lake Champlain to Albany. Then the united and irresistible army could easily overtake and whip the Americans.

How the Plan Worked. It was a great plan; but it got tucked into a pigeonhole in a desk in London, and some of the men who were to take part in it did not hear of it until long afterwards. St. Leger started out from Oswego in the summer of 1777; but he was defeated at Fort Stanwix by some soldiers under Benedict Arnold, aided by the pioneers of that region. That stopped him.

Fort Ticonderoga, overlooking Lake Champlain, as it appears Today

General St. Clair wisely gave up Fort Ticonderoga to Burgoyne early in 1777, saving his men for better use later in the campaign

After much delay Howe, instead of marching north, loaded his men on ships, sailed around for a month, and then turned into Chesapeake Bay. Washington saw that Howe intended to go to Philadelphia; so he met him at Brandywine Creek, but was defeated. Howe marched into the city. Washington, attacking again at Germantown, was again beaten. He had to go to Valley Forge, near Philadelphia, and wait and hope.

Burgoyne came down Lake Champlain, according to plan, and took Fort Ticonderoga from the Americans. But, when he went south from that point, marching was very difficult owing to the uncut forests. It took him twenty days to go twenty miles. Food was scarce, most of it having to be brought along in wagons on the newly cut roads after coming in ships clear from England. He heard that there were supplies at Bennington, Vermont, and sent five hundred

soldiers to capture them. But John Stark, a sturdy farmer, hastily gathered his neighbors together and defended and kept the supplies, besides capturing some of the soldiers.

Hearing that the enemy was in their own country, the farmers of New York and New England hurried to join the American army under Gates and Schuyler. Finally there were over three times as many Americans as British. Two important battles were fought near Saratoga in September and October, in which the Americans defeated their foes. General Gates commanded, but Benedict Arnold led the most important charges on the enemy.[1] Burgoyne and his entire army surrendered on October 17, 1777.

In the meantime Benjamin Franklin had been sent to France to persuade the French government, if possible, to help the Americans to win their independence. The Americans knew that many philosophers and idealists in that country were opposed to the tyranny of kings, and they thought that the French might be willing to lend aid. Besides, France was the ancient enemy of England, and perhaps would be glad to help to take some of her power from her. Franklin was popular in France; but the most that he could do at first was to secure some secret help from private citizens who sympathized with the colonies.[2]

But when the news of the surrender at Saratoga reached Europe, the French king, Louis XVI, decided to come out openly for the American cause. He made a treaty of alliance saying that France would fight with the Americans, and a treaty of commerce agreeing to trade.

[1] After the victory at Saratoga some of Washington's enemies planned to have him removed from his position and to put Gates in his place. Fortunately the attempt failed. Gates had very slight ability, as was later discovered.

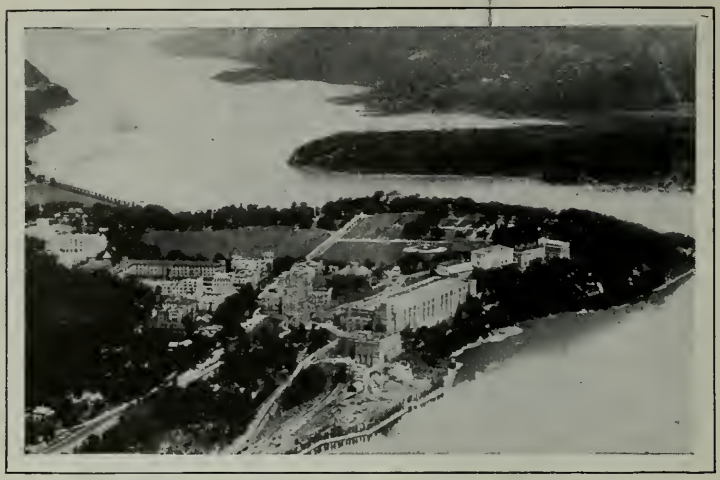
[2] The best friend the Americans had at this time was a writer, Caron de Beaumarchais, who gathered ammunition and guns and sent them to America. Forty ships were in the fleet that brought supplies to America through a trading company which Beaumarchais organized to help the patriots.

Sir Henry Clinton General Lafayette

As soon as England heard of the alliance between France and the United States, she knew that her possessions in every part of the world might be threatened by her various enemies; in fact, Spain and Holland joined France against England not long afterwards. It was impossible, therefore, for England to send large reënforcements to the armies in America.

The British Retreat from Philadelphia to New York. News of the alliance was received at Valley Forge with hurrahs. The American soldiers might well cheer. Since France was going to help the United States, she would send over a fleet. If the British remained in Philadelphia they might be penned in between the American soldiers on the one side and the French fleet on the other; accordingly they at once prepared to leave Philadelphia and to gather most of their forces in New York.

Sir William Howe now surrendered the command to Sir Henry Clinton. Clinton decided to send his supplies around to New York by the ships and to march the soldiers



West Point as it appears Today

This picture shows the national military college for training army officers. It was established by Jefferson in 1802. In 1780 there was a fort at this point (Can you see why by noting the "lay" of land and river?), with an American garrison. It was this fort that Arnold turned over to the enemy for a generalship in the British army

overland through New Jersey. Here Washington was ready for him. Near Monmouth, June 28, 1778, he pounced on Clinton and might have defeated him completely if it had not been for the treachery of General Charles Lee.[1] As it was, Clinton succeeded in getting back to New York, and there he stayed.

The battle of Monmouth was the last battle in the long and difficult middle-states campaign and the last in the North. After that the British turned their attention to the South. But they kept a force at New York, and Washington settled down to watch the enemy and trouble it as much as possible. It was while he was doing this that Benedict Arnold surrendered West Point to the British in September, 1780. His plot was discovered, but Arnold himself escaped to the enemy.

[1] Lee had lately been released after having been a prisoner in the hands of the British. After his conduct at Monmouth he was arrested and finally driven out of the American army.

Steuben drilling Washington's Army in Winter Quarters at Valley Forge

The winter at Valley Forge was the saddest period of the war. The soldiers were without barracks, living in tents or dugouts or shivering over little fires on the ground. They had little food, and that poor; their clothing was worn or wanting. (As imagined by the artist Edwin A. Abbey. Copyright by M. G. Abbey; from a Copley Print, copyright by Curtis and Cameron, Publishers, Boston)

Review and Projects

1. Re-read this section until you can step to a wall map and, pointing out each place mentioned, tell a good, clear story of the campaigns of 1777.

2. Show that at the end of 1777 the colonists had good reasons for thinking that they could win the war.

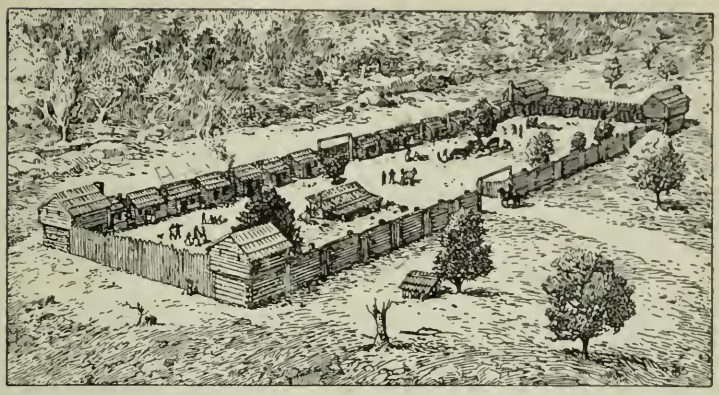
3. Benedict Arnold is one of the few traitors we have had in our national history. Can you find in your reading any reasons for his act? What does the Constitution say about treason? Who fixes the punishment of a traitor? See William E. H. Lecky's "Arnold's Treason," in Volume V of Great Epochs in American History (edited by F. W. Halsey).

4. Explain why Saratoga ranks as one of the world's decisive battles.

3. The War in the West

The war for independence was by no means confined to the Atlantic coast. It was started by men in that region; but before it ended, many people on the frontier, among the mountains, and even in the Mississippi Valley took part in its hardships. The fighting on this western frontier was between the Indians and the Tories, on the side of England, and the American backwoodsmen who had recently come into the region.

The Frontier Settlements. Between 1763 and 1775 there was a constant migration from the older settlements east of the mountains into the central valley. The old French villages in the Illinois country at Kaskaskia and Vincennes and Detroit were in the hands of the English. Then there were American frontier villages at Pittsburgh, at Harrodsburg and Boonesboro in Kentucky, and at Nashville in Tennessee. The danger these frontiersmen most feared was an Indian raid, an event which frequently occurred, especially in the Kentucky and Tennessee settlements. In their attacks on



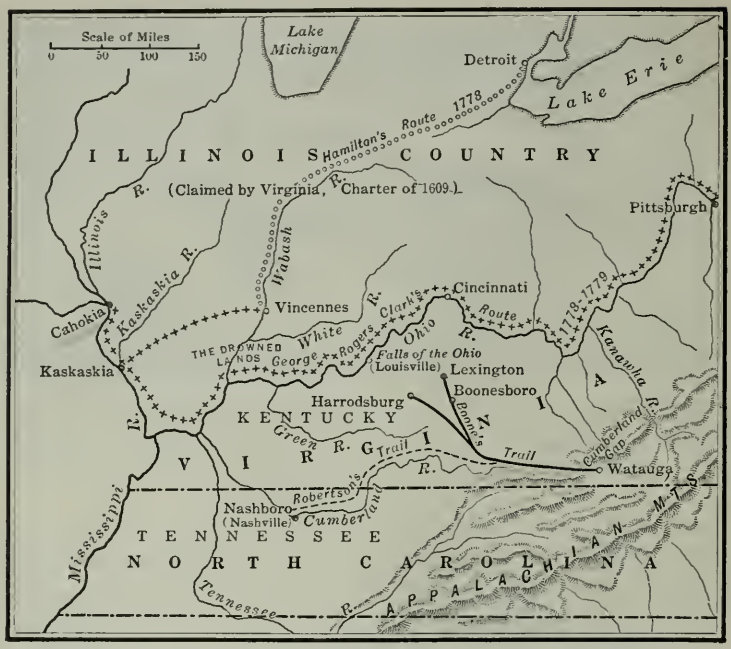
A Picture of Boonesboro, Kentucky, drawn from Descriptions of the Fort

Why have the trees been cut away from around the fort? What is a "palisade"? Why is there a row of separate cabins instead of one large barrack?

the settlers the Indians were encouraged and aided by the British. Colonel Henry Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, was the leader in stirring up the Indians against the American pioneers.

Clark's Expedition to the Illinois Country. In 1777 the Western pioneers decided to strike at the source of their danger, the British forts in the Northwest. A brave man, George Rogers Clark, was sent to Virginia to get the aid of Governor Patrick Henry. After hearing Clark's explanation, Governor Henry gave him money and supplies and the right to enlist men for his enterprise.

In the spring of 1778, Clark, with less than two hundred men, started from Pittsburgh toward Kaskaskia. They stopped at a little island in the Ohio River opposite the present city of Louisville, Kentucky, to drill and to gather supplies. Then they continued down the Ohio and across southern Illinois to old Kaskaskia. They found the fort there held by a few soldiers. Clark surprised the garrison, and on July 4, 1778, captured it without a fight. When he



The War in the West

told the French of the region that their country had become an ally of the United States, they quickly agreed to help him.

Clark's next move was to capture Cahokia and start for Vincennes in what is now Indiana. By that time it was February, 1779, and the spring floods were already starting. Part of the hundred and seventy miles to Vincennes was flooded prairie covered shoulder-high with icy water, but Clark and his hardy men waded through. Later in the month Hamilton, commanding at Vincennes, was surprised to see the American soldiers trudging forward to surround his fort. He surrendered the next day. The frontiersmen heaved a sigh of relief when they heard that their worst enemy had been captured and sent to Virginia as a prisoner.

The conquest of what was later called the Old Northwest was now begun. The United States had a claim to the great territory between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi. The Indians became at once more peaceful, and the country north of the Ohio was opened up for settlement by white men.

Review, Project, and Enrichment

1. Practice telling the story of the war in the West until you can recite it without the aid of the book.

2. Fix in your mind an outline of the war thus far. You may need to jot this outline down on paper to make sure that you have the events in the right order.

3. Read "George Rogers Clark and the Conquest of the Northwest," in *Hero Tales from American History*, by Theodore Roosevelt and H. C. Lodge, pp. 29–41.

4. Write a diary-letter back to your mother in Virginia telling her what happened on the Clark campaign. How will the letter be carried back?

5. *Resolved*, That in the winning of American liberties the conquest of the Illinois was fully as important as the victory of Saratoga.

4. The Southern Campaigns

Having been driven out of Boston by Washington and having made little progress in the middle states, the British now prepared to turn their attention to the South. There were two reasons for this:

1. As already mentioned, the English had failed to conquer the North and end the war.

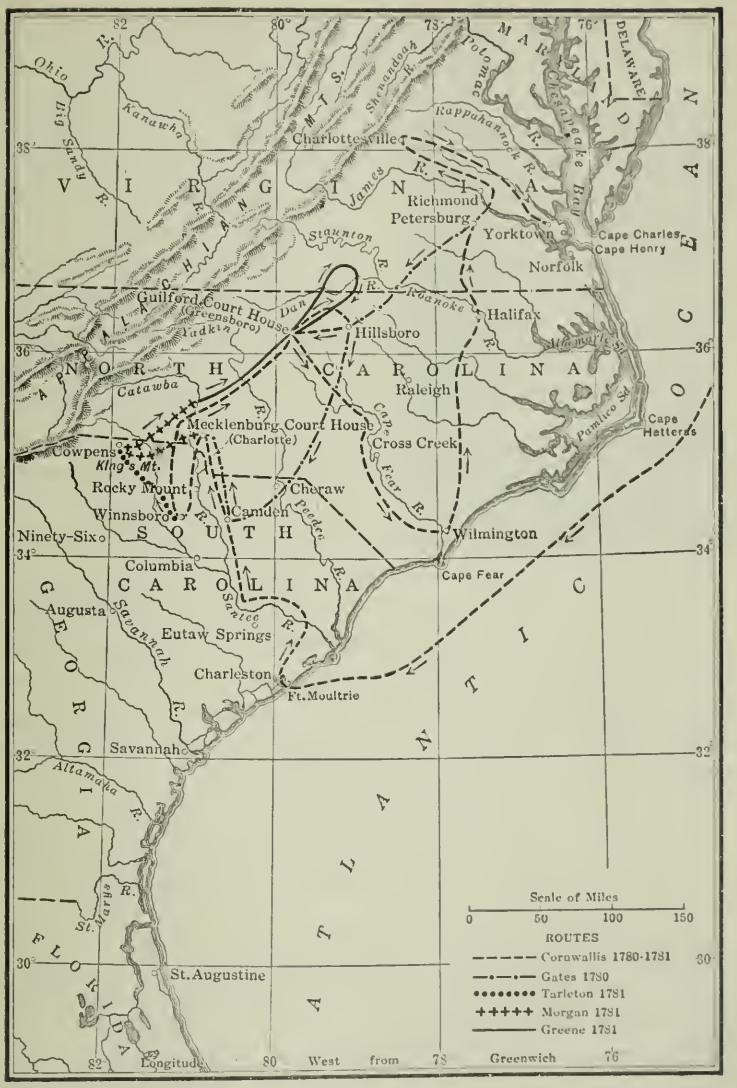
2. They thought that many people in the Southern states were friendly to England and would help them. It was their intention to conquer Georgia and work up the coast, bringing the war to an end in state after state.

The War in Georgia and the Carolinas. The first part of the program was carried out easily. Savannah, in Georgia, was captured late in December, 1778, and the rest of the state was secured after some months of fighting.

Then Clinton himself went down from New York by sea with General Cornwallis and seven thousand men. He landed his forces near Charleston, the chief city of the South. The American general, Lincoln, was compelled to surrender in May, 1780. As soon as Charleston was captured, Clinton sent out a famous cavalry leader, Tarleton, with his horsemen. Tarleton would ride swiftly to any place where there were American soldiers, surprise them (sometimes at night), capture all he could, and ride as quickly back. So cruel and swift was Tarleton that South Carolina was soon nearly as helpless as Georgia.

But although the seacoast was thus reduced, there were brave defenders left in the back-country. Sumter, Marion, Pickens, and others gathered little bands of men who were expert in handling a gun. They camped in the woods and mountains, where it was difficult to catch them, and dashed out to fight wherever they could find small English forces. Sumter and Marion were never strong enough to give battle to a whole army, but they reduced the number of British soldiers every time they sallied forth. Tarleton called Marion the "old swamp fox" because he knew paths of escape across the marshy wildernesses of the Carolinas.

A Defeat and Two Victories. To organize the fighting better, Congress sent General Gates down to the Carolinas to take command. In August, 1780, Gates found Cornwallis at Camden in northern South Carolina. A battle followed in which Gates was badly beaten, and he fled nearly two hundred miles before trying even to gather his men together again. Gates then had his command taken from him, and General Nathanael Greene was sent down.



The War in the South, 1780–1781

Before Greene could reach the scene of action an odd battle had been fought. Cornwallis had sent about one thousand men into the edge of North Carolina to get supplies and to enlist Americans who might be willing to join the English army. Suddenly the English found themselves being surrounded by bands of men who had gathered from the farms and mountains of that region. The British took refuge on a flat-topped height called King's Mountain. The Americans crept up the sides, hiding behind trees and bushes, and killed, wounded, or captured the entire British force. Then the Americans scattered to their homes and farms. The battle of King's Mountain was more important than it seemed:

1. It showed that the Carolinas were not really conquered by the British.

2. Cornwallis was so far from reënforcements that he could not afford to lose so many men.

As soon as Greene reached the South, Cornwallis decided to make an attempt to beat the new commander as he had beaten Gates. On January 17, 1781, he came upon a part of Greene's army under command of Morgan and Pickens at the Cowpens. The result was another defeat, in which the British lost nine hundred men.[1]

Retreat of Cornwallis to Yorktown, Virginia, and his Surrender on October 19, 1781. In a short time Cornwallis met Greene at Guilford Court House in North Carolina and

[1] Morgan drew up his men in three lines, one line some distance in front of the next. The first line was told to fire when the army of the enemy was fifty yards away and then to fall back to the second line. The second line was to fire twice and then fall back to the third line. When the first two lines fell back in this way, the British thought that the Americans were retreating, and they came on pell-mell. Then the third line held firmly. Pickens suddenly darted out from one side with his horsemen, and the British found themselves being surrounded. Six hundred of them threw down their arms and surrendered.

defeated him, but could not capture the whole army. Then Cornwallis decided to march northward into Virginia and do what damage he could there. Benedict Arnold (now in British service) was already in Virginia, and he combined with Cornwallis in the attempt to conquer the state. Tarleton was sent out to break up the Virginia legislature, which was at Charlottesville. He was successful in his attempt and almost captured the governor of Virginia, Thomas Jefferson.

Lord Cornwallis

Lord Cornwallis, whose blundering was largely responsible for the American success at Yorktown. He later went to India, where, as the historian Fisher says, "he won distinguished victories over Indian princes who had no Greenes or Morgans to command their armies." The portrait is from a painting by Gainsborough in the National Portrait Gallery, London

It was now two years and a half since the British had captured Savannah, and still the South was not conquered. As trees bend in a gale but rise as soon as the wind dies down, so the South seemed to give way to the British but was ready to assert itself again as soon as the backs of the soldiers were turned.

Sir Henry Clinton, who had gone back to New York, now ordered Cornwallis to go to some seaport in Virginia, fortify it, and wait for reënforcements by water. Cornwallis chose Yorktown, a place on the York River not far from the site of the first English colony at Jamestown. There he stationed his army, placed cannon where they would command the river, and threw up fortifications. Lafayette, who had been sent into Virginia by Washington, drew up some troops in front of Yorktown, and for a short time quiet reigned.

The Surrender of the British at Yorktown as imagined by an Artist

Lord Cornwallis sent General O'Hara to surrender his sword. General Lincoln was appointed by Washington to receive it

Then occurred one of the most interesting things in all American history. Washington had with him near New York, besides his own troops, a French army under Rochambeau; and in the middle of the summer of 1781 he heard two bits of news: (1) that Cornwallis had fortified himself at Yorktown and (2) that a French fleet had set sail for Chesapeake Bay and could be made useful in preventing reënforcements from getting to Cornwallis by sea. He promptly started the French and American troops on the march to the South.[1] When they reached Chesapeake Bay

[1] Some of the soldiers marched every step of the way to Yorktown. Lafayette's brother-in-law walked seven hundred and fifty-six miles from Newport, Rhode Island, to Yorktown to take part in the battle. It was worth the pains.

he sent most of the men to Yorktown by boat. While part of Washington's army was on the way, the French fleet reached the entrance to the bay, and there met and defeated the English fleet.

When Washington's troops at last reached Yorktown and shut off any escape by land, Cornwallis found himself in a trap. The French fleet penned him in on the water side, and the French and American soldiers surrounded him on the land side. There was no hope of securing quick reënforcements.

On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis's army was surrendered, and marched out between two lines of French and American troops. The surrender at Yorktown was the end of fighting on American soil. England continued to fight France and her allies on the sea, and the results of these fights were important. It was not until 1783 that the last British soldiers left New York; even then a few garrisons on the Great Lakes retained their British troops. When the war was closed and peace made, Washington resigned his position and went back to his home at Mount Vernon to become a private citizen again.

Review and Projects

1. Remembering the four regions and sets of action, test yourself to see whether you can tell the whole story of the Revolutionary fighting in a clear, smooth story, using the wall map to make the movements plain.

2. Now that the war is over, list the most important reasons for American success. Why did the Americans, who lost so many battles, yet win the war?

3. Do you think the British people and generals were sorry to see the war end as it did? Give your reasons.

4. In your supplementary reading have you found any stories of women who did brave deeds in the war?

5. Do you know a picture called "The Spirit of '76"? What does that picture tell? The original painting hangs in Abbott Hall, Marblehead, Massachusetts.

6. Seek additional information on the war in the South from books in the bibliography on pages 77–79, and especially in *Hero Tales from American History*, by Roosevelt and Lodge.

5. Other Factors that Influenced the Result

The American Navy in the Revolution. Compared with Great Britain, our newly born nation had scarcely any navy at all. Congress commissioned about two thousand private vessels to arm themselves and do what damage they could to English ships. These privateers, as they were called, did valiant service in fighting and capturing merchant ships and were even sometimes a match for battleships. John Barry, an Irish immigrant, was given the *Lexington* in 1776, and made so many captures that he was offered a large sum to desert his adopted country. He refused the offer.

The great hero of the tiny navy that was finally gathered together was John Paul Jones. His ship, the *Bon Homme Richard*, fought the English *Serapis* in 1779 off the English coast and beat her. Other victories won him a great name among American heroes; but the navy was never able to match itself against the strongest navy on the sea. The French navy, however, was of immense advantage during the later years of the struggle.

Financing the War. It takes an immense amount of money to fight a war. Soldiers must be paid, arms and ammunition must be bought, and food and clothing must be provided. When the war broke out the Americans had too little money even to carry on ordinary business well. They had no factories for making guns and ammunition in the quantity needed for war. The soldiers rarely had uniforms, and their food was scanty indeed; sometimes the supply was

short for days together. Nothing but an overwhelming faith in their cause could have made the patriots embark on a war.

There are three ways of raising the money for a war: (1) taxing the people, (2) borrowing, and (3) issuing paper money. The Continental Congress tried all three ways, but had to rely mainly on the last. The people were too poor to give much in taxes, and many of the wealthy people were Loyalists. Congress borrowed wherever it could find a lender, but it got only about $8,000,000 from this resource. The foreign loans came mainly from France. Between 1775 and 1779 over $241,000,000 of "Continental" paper money was printed. In addition to this, the states issued more than $200,000,000 of their own paper money. So much was issued that it finally came to be almost valueless. People said of worthless things, "It is not worth a continental," meaning it was not worth a piece of Continental paper money.

Robert Morris, the Devoted Financier of the Revolution

From a painting by Charles Wilson Peale in the Philadelphia Academy of the Fine Arts. (Copyright by Detroit Publishing Company)

The man to whom the credit for financing the war is due was Robert Morris of Philadelphia. He was of English birth, but had emigrated to this country and become a rich merchant. To him Washington turned in his dire need, and Morris did not fail. He used every device he could find, he worked without stint, and when everything else failed he was not ashamed to beg for his country by going, if need be, from door to door for contributions for the starving soldiers.

In 1781 he was placed in control of the financial affairs of the United States government.

Some Europeans who Helped. Many European soldiers became interested in the American war and wished to come over and take part. Pulaski and Kosciusko were from Poland. De Kalb, a German by birth who had become a general in the French army, was killed at Camden, having been wounded thirteen times. Baron von Steuben was a German who had served under Frederick the Great of Prussia, one of the greatest generals in history. Steuben became chief drill-master of the American army and worked out the system used during the Revolution and afterwards. Washington's last official letter, written in 1783, was one of thanks to Steuben. Lafayette has always, however, been the best-known and best-loved foreigner who fought on the American side. He belonged to a leading French family, but he left home, family, and fortune to help the United States in its time of need.[1]

Women in the Revolution. Women must always look after new tasks and duties, keeping the affairs of life as nearly normal as they can when their men go off to war. In the Revolution many women ran the farms and shops at home, besides doing as much as they could of their regular work. Those near the battlefields made bandages for the wounded and took them into their homes for care when they could. There were no hospitals in those days.

Prices went higher and higher, and made it more and more difficult for the mother of a family to get proper food and clothing for herself and the children. In any city such as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, and Savannah a bombardment or attack always brought suffering for the women and children. If they did not hurry out of the

[1] Many of the Hessian soldiers hired by the English deserted and remained in America. Many who were captured settled in the United States after the war and never returned to Europe.

town, taking whatever valuables they could, they had to undergo the danger of cannon shot and burning buildings. When Boston was being held by the British, for example, there was danger every minute of the day and night. Mrs. John Adams wrote to her husband how disease spread, how children and old people fell sick, and how many of her neighbors died because of the epidemics. Sometimes alarms were given in the night (as was done just before Lexington and Concord), and the men leaped out of bed, seized their muskets, and went hurriedly away. Their families might or might not ever see them alive again.

Abigail Adams, Wife of the Patriot Leader John Adams

An able woman, who wrote excellent descriptions of life in Boston early in the Revolution

Industry during the War. The war did not hurt industry as much as one might think. Most of the people were farmers; and, except in the neighborhoods where fighting was actually going on, planting and reaping went on as usual. Much damage was done by the armies in New Jersey, Virginia, and farther south; but when fighting ceased, farming went on as before. Enough food and clothing was being produced to have fed and clothed Washington's army well, but there was no way of organizing the forces behind the army for its support. The government was not centralized enough to be efficient. The laws had not yet been worked out for an emergency so great as a war.

The shipbuilding and carrying trade of New England was damaged, and at the beginning of the war manufacturing was badly upset. But after a time ways were found for reviving business and for making supplies that had before come from Europe.

Washington's Part in the War. The war was won by the whole army, from drummer boy to general in chief. The lowest private who suffered at Valley Forge and trudged all the way from New York to Yorktown did his share. Able generals, like Nathanael Greene, did their share. But Washington will always remain the great hero of the conflict because of his quiet dignity and determination to keep his cause alive until good fortune came. No matter who might prove traitor, or become discouraged, or give up, Washington remained at his post. He was ridiculed, abused, and unjustly accused. His enemies tried to remove him, and called him a failure. For months he was unable to make any progress, and often he suffered defeat. Congress failed to support him. And under all this trouble he stayed in his place, did the best he could, and "did not despair of the Republic." Therefore that Republic and all the world continue always to do him honor.

The Loyalists and the War. Many very good people were Loyalists, or Tories. They chose to remain loyal to the king rather than join the cause of the thirteen colonies. They were probably about a third of all the people, and they opposed the war from the beginning. In some parts of the country — for example, in New York, Philadelphia, and South Carolina — they were perhaps, in the majority.

The patriots hated the Loyalists bitterly. Washington called them "detestable parricides" and "abominable pests" of society. They were very severely treated by the patriots, who felt that they were traitors to the common good. In the early stages of the war they were compelled to give up

A Portrait of Benjamin Franklin

Next to Washington, Benjamin Franklin was the great man of the Revolution. Before it came he had represented the colonies in London, trying to show the English why they should treat the colonies more as equals. When war broke out he went to France, and by his diplomacy won a powerful ally for the weak and inexperienced colonies. He was helped in Paris by Silas Dean and Arthur Lee, who enlisted the sympathies of Beaumarchais. At the close of the war Franklin aided John Adams and John Jay in making the peace treaty. This picture is from a pastel by Joseph Duplessis. It was made in 1783

their allegiance to the king. Later, when the patriot cause had succeeded, some of the more radical Loyalists were driven from their homes or tarred and feathered or even hanged. In many states their property was seized. New York state alone received $3,600,000 from this source. Many of the Loyalists left the country to make their homes in England or in other British colonies, especially Canada. When General Howe was forced out of Boston, about a thousand Loyalists even joined the British army and fought on his side. All told, perhaps fifty thousand colonists supported the king. Three regiments of them were in the British service.[1]

The Treaty of Peace, 1783. For many months the statesmen and diplomats wrangled over the terms of peace with the new American nation. At last, in 1783, England and the United States agreed on the following:

1. The United States to be independent of Great Britain, and to be bounded on the north by Canada, on the west by the Mississippi River, and on the south by Florida.

2. The British army and fleet to leave the United States.

3. American fishermen to have the right to fish off the coasts of Canada and Newfoundland.

In return for these valuable concessions the United States agreed to the following:

1. That Congress would ask the states to let the Loyalists return and get back their property.

2. That British vessels, as well as American vessels, should have the right to sail up and down the Mississippi River.

[1] The descendants of the Loyalists who went to Canada formed a society which is called the United Empire Loyalists. They settled at first in Nova Scotia; but they did not like the government there, which was made to suit the French settlers and did not give as much self-government as the Loyalists were used to. So the mother country organized a new province, New Brunswick, in which they could have a government more suited to their wishes. Later on many United Empire Loyalists moved to Ontario.

Review and Projects

1. Make a list of the persons or groups of persons who helped to win the war in ways other than as soldiers or generals. State briefly how each one on your list helped.

2. A civil war is one in which groups of people of the same country are fighting each other. Show in a three-minute floor talk in what respects the Revolutionary War was a civil war.

3. Can you discover where Spain and the Netherlands stood during the Revolution? Did they sympathize with England or with the colonies? Did they help or hinder the American cause?

4. Trace on a map the boundaries of the United States as fixed in 1783. Name the organized states at this date.

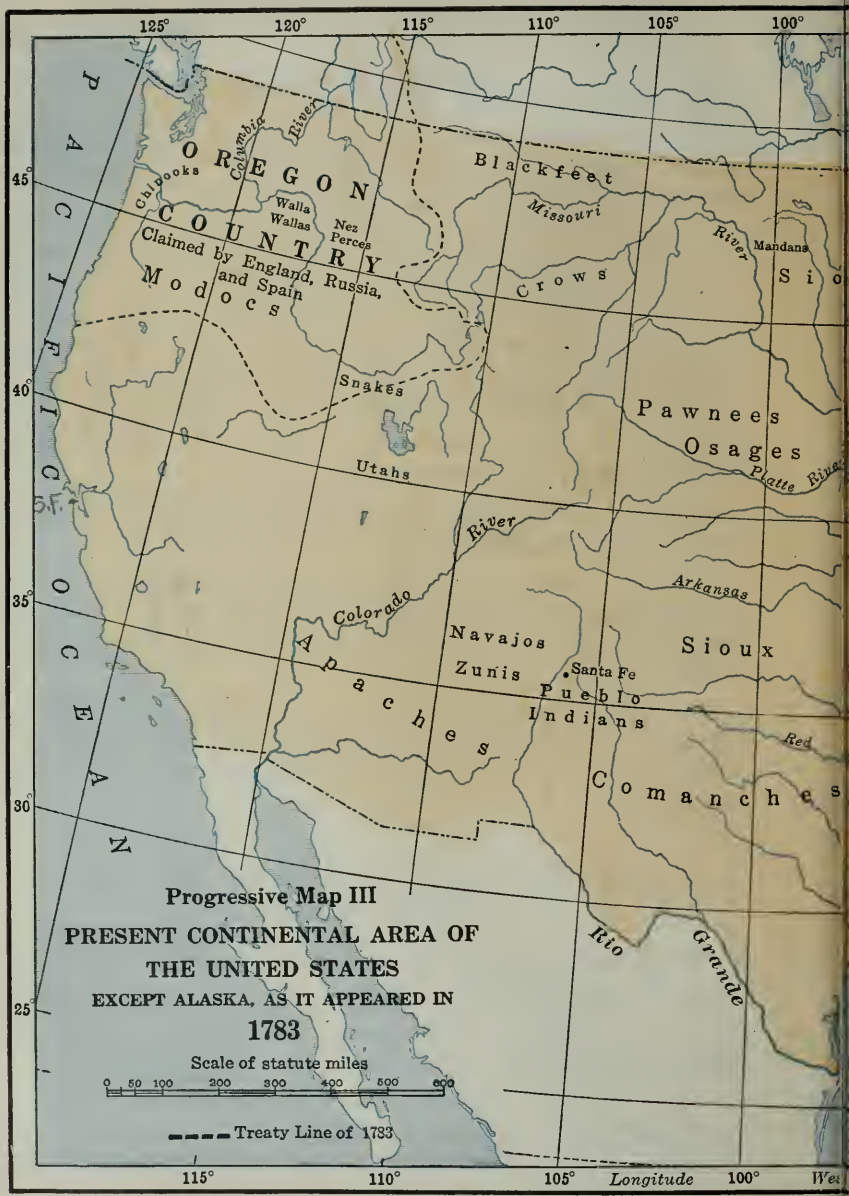
5. Talk for three minutes to the class on how the people who remained at home helped to win the war.

6. Do you know a poem called "The Song of Marion's Men"? If not, find it, read or recite it, and explain it to the class. See *Chief American Poets*, by Curtis Hidden Page, or a collection of Bryant's poems.

7. Conduct a "round table" on books and stories dealing with the Revolutionary War. Let each member of the class review one or more books that he has used and learned to know since beginning Division Two.

UNIT III. THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

No years in times of peace are more important in American history than those from 1783 to 1789. In 1783 the people had just won their independence from England. Would they go ahead and form a government and one great nation? Or would they form several small nations, as the people of Central and South America have done? The way in which the people answered these questions has affected American history ever since.



Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 · Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921

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1. What were the Articles of Confederation and How did they Work?

The Central Government during the War. There was no "United States" before the Revolution. Each of the thirteen colonies took care of itself and had little connection with the other colonies. During the war the colonies had to unite to fight the enemy. The Second Continental Congress happened to be meeting at Philadelphia when the war broke out. It was the only gathering in which there were people from all the colonies. It therefore took charge of the war, asked Washington to be commander in chief of the army, and raised the necessary money. There was no time to stop and discuss whether Congress had the right to do all these different things.

Since the powers and duties of the Continental Congress were not set down on paper, a committee was appointed in 1776 to draw up a constitution which should say how the United States was to be governed. The plan made by the committee was called the Articles of Confederation, and it was accepted by Congress. It was then sent to all the states to see whether they would agree to it. All of them did so except Maryland; and Maryland refused, for a very important reason.

Maryland said that many of the states — New York and Virginia, for example — claimed to own lands in the West as far as the Mississippi River. Maryland had no such claim; and she complained that if all the states should form a union called the United States, then the big states, such as New York and Virginia, would have more power than the little states, such as Maryland. Thereupon Virginia and, after her, the other states that had western claims said that they would give up their claims to the United States as a whole. Then the nation and not any one state would own all that

western land. Maryland then consented to the Articles, and in 1781 they became the law of the land. The most important points in the Articles were the following:

1. The name of the country should be the United States of America.

2. It should be governed by a congress in which every state should be represented.

3. Laws should be passed when agreed to by nine out of the thirteen states.

4. No change could be made in the Articles unless all the states agreed.

The Chief Defects of the Articles of Confederation. The Articles did not work as well as had been hoped. They had two outstanding defects:

1. The first was that Congress could not raise money to pay its bills. Under the provisions of the Articles, Congress *requested* the states to contribute a certain amount of money to keep the government going. Some of the states paid as much as they were asked to pay, some paid a small fraction, and some paid nothing at all. Congress could not *compel* the states to pay if they did not wish to.

2. The second defect was that each state could pass tariff laws as it pleased. For example, goods coming from England and being brought up a river between two states might be landed free on one bank but have to pay a big tax on the other. The different states were continually quarreling over this matter.

Bad Political and Economic Conditions. The defects of the Articles were made worse by bad conditions in the country just after the Revolution. For one thing, it was very hard to get around in the country, because the roads were so poor. Then the states were all suspicious of one another. They had not long been accustomed to speak and think of the "United States," but they had long felt a real loyalty to

their colony. That loyalty was mixed with pride; and many people felt that pride in one's own colony, or state, meant looking on people in other states as inferiors. New England thought the people to the south were ignorant; the Southerners thought the Northerners very ordinary people, without fine traditions. All the cities of the Atlantic coast wanted to be the leading seaports of the country; they were jealous of one another. New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut were constantly quarreling with one another over trade.

Another source of trouble was the lack of a good money system. English money was used in some parts of the country; Spanish money in others. The almost worthless Continental paper money was still used, and so was the money issued by the different states; one state's money was good, and another state's money was almost worthless. It was hard to carry on business with such poor money.[1]

Foreign trade was also in a bad condition. Some industries, such as the southern rice culture, had been injured by the war. England, France, and Spain all closed their West Indian colonies to American trade. These markets had been very profitable, and when they were gone great distress resulted. But the United States was producing plenty of tobacco, lumber, and food for export, and after a little while there grew up some trade with the Netherlands and other northern European countries. It was at this time also that the stout ships of Boston and Salem began to go to China.

Such conditions as these, of course, created unrest. People were discontented all over the United States, particularly in Massachusetts. Many people were deeply in debt, and they found it hard to pay their bills because money was scarce. The debtors were frequently put into prison.

[1] Paper money was so nearly worthless that a barber in Philadelphia papered his shop with it. Flour at one time cost $1575 a barrel, and Samuel Adams bought a hat and a suit of clothes which cost $2000.

Finally, under the leadership of Daniel Shays, the people of central Massachusetts seized arms, broke open the jails, and let the debtors out. Only with difficulty was this rebellion stopped.

Good Conditions in the Country. However, not everything was bad in the United States after the Revolution. In the first place, there was a population of about 3,250,000 people, most of whom spoke the English language and for the most part had the same customs and the same ideas of government.[1] Furthermore, the United States had plenty of natural resources, such as fertile land, timber, minerals, water power, and fur-bearing and food animals. There was so much good land everywhere, especially in the West, that anybody who was discontented or unsuccessful could move away and begin life over again somewhere else. In European countries, where land was extremely scarce, discontent like that existing in the United States after the Revolution was likely to result in civil war.

Some Wise Laws. During these years of gloom and distress Congress was not entirely inactive. One of its laws, passed in 1785, was especially wise. The plan of the law was to divide the lands north of the Ohio River and west of the Appalachian Mountains into squares, or "townships," six miles on a side. Every township was to be divided into thirty-six "sections," each section being a square mile, or six hundred and forty acres, in size.

The land was then to be sold very cheaply to anybody who would settle on it. One section in every township was to be reserved for keeping up the schools; for example, the land might be sold and the money used for education.

Buyers promptly appeared for the new land. The first and chief of these was the Ohio Company, a group com-

[1] For example, most Americans believed in good schools and in freedom of religion and opposed kings and monarchical governments.

posed mainly of veterans of the Revolution who wished to make homes for themselves in the West. The Company made arrangements for the purchase of 1,500,000 acres in what is now Ohio, at the rate of two thirds of a dollar an acre.

Congress then passed the so-called Northwest Ordinance of 1787. It related to the vast stretch of land which now makes up the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The ordinance had four important provisions:

1. The Northwest was to be formed into states having self-government exactly like the states already in the Union as soon as the population was great enough.
2. Education was to be encouraged.
3. People were not to be molested on account of religion.
4. Slavery was not to be allowed.

Until the population grew to the point at which states would be made, Congress was to send out officers to govern the Northwest Territory.

Review, Projects, and Enrichment

1. What were the four basic provisions of the Northwest Ordinance? How do they affect our lives today?

2. How do you account for the fact that paper money is sometimes almost worthless and sometimes as good as gold?

3. After finding his story, tell the class why Manasseh Cutler is an outstanding figure in the days of the Articles. See *The Winning of the West*, by Theodore Roosevelt, Vol. III, pp. 256–271.

4. Gouverneur Morris and Thomas Jefferson planned the decimal currency of the United States, and Congress adopted it in 1786. The "dollar" was the unit. Can you find by a dictionary hunt where they found that word?

5. Read "The Days of Weakness and Confusion" and "Keeping the Union Together," in Eva March Tappan's *Story of the Constitution*, chaps. i, ii.

2. Making and Adopting the Constitution

With all its problems and troubles, the country was still fortunate, for it possessed men of brains and courage. They saw what was wrong, and they set to work to make things right. They saw that a stronger central power was needed. They saw that the national government must be able to collect taxes, pay its bills, and issue good money. It must be strong enough to put down such risings as Shays's Rebellion and to secure trading privileges with other countries. Foremost among these men were James Madison of Virginia and Alexander Hamilton, a young man who had been born in the West Indies and had moved to New York just before the Revolution. Other men saw as clearly as Hamilton and Madison that something ought to be done; but how could a start be made?

The Annapolis Convention. A dispute had arisen between Maryland and Virginia about their rights on the Potomac River, which runs between the two states. It was suggested that a convention be held of delegates from all the states. The meeting was to be at Annapolis in 1786. Only five states troubled to appoint delegates, and only a few persons attended, but among them were Madison and Hamilton. These two got the convention to propose a meeting of delegates from all the states at Philadelphia in 1787 to see if the Articles of Confederation could be revised so as to be more useful. With the exception of Rhode Island, all the states were willing to make the attempt, and they appointed delegates to attend the meeting.

The Constitutional Convention, May–September, 1787. The Constitutional Convention, which met in Philadelphia from May to September, 1787, was the most important meeting ever held in America.

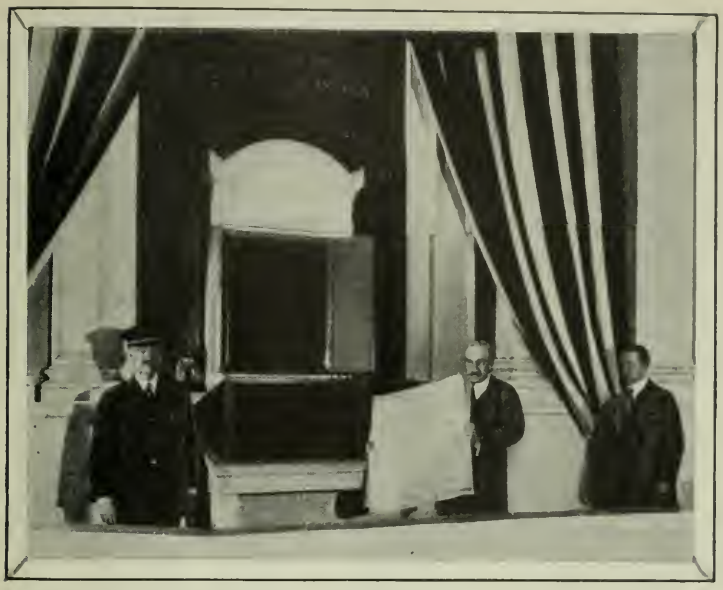
It is surprising to note the names of some of the Revolu-

tionary leaders who were not present — Samuel Adams and John Hancock from Massachusetts, and Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson (who was then our minister to France) from Virginia. It is noticeable too that no delegates representing the farming and working classes were present, although most of the people of the United States belonged to these two groups.

On the other hand, most of America's great men were there, including Washington, Franklin, Madison, and Hamilton. Most of the delegates were men of ability and education. Many were lawyers; some had been signers of the Declaration of Independence; one or two, especially Franklin, were experienced in foreign affairs. Gerry of Massachusetts and Robert Morris of Philadelphia were prosperous merchants. All in all, it was a remarkable group of men.

As soon as enough delegates had reached Philadelphia the Convention opened, and Washington was made president. The members began to draw up and talk over plans for a better government. They soon agreed that instead of patching up the Articles, they would make an entirely new constitution. In discussing this it was soon apparent that the Convention was dividing into two groups: the members from the large states and the members from the small states. The members from the small states feared that the big states would control the new government completely and that the small states would suffer.

The Split over Representation. The trouble came to a head over the question of representation. Both groups agreed that the laws should be made by a Congress; but the larger states thought that they should have more representatives in the Congress, since their population was larger. The small states argued for a Congress in which all states should have the same number of representatives, since it was not their fault that they were small. The disagreement



Enshrining the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence

Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, holding the original manuscripts of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, which he is about to place in the shrine in the Library of Congress. (Copyright by Underwood & Underwood)

finally became so bitter that it looked as if the Convention might break up without doing anything whatever.

Then a happy solution was found. It was (1) that Congress should be made of two parts, or Houses — a Senate and a House of Representatives; (2) that in the Senate every state should have only two representatives; (3) that the number of representatives in the House of Representatives should be large or small according to the population. This plan satisfied all; and after it had been adopted, the work of the Convention went on more smoothly. The members worked hard all summer, and then the finished Constitution was sent to the states for their ratification, or consent.

The Ratification. A new obstacle now appeared. Only thirty-nine of the fifty-five delegates signed the Constitution, for some of them thought it unwise and dangerous. The sixteen men who refused to sign went home, and most of them urged the people to refuse to accept the new form of government. A great argument arose all over the country, men writing and speaking for and against the Constitution everywhere. Those who wanted it adopted were called Federalists, since they wanted the states more strongly federated, or united. Those who opposed it were the Anti-Federalists. These said that the new government would be too strong and would soon be as tyrannical as that of England, from which they had just become free. The "President" would be another George III. They wanted to keep the power right at home in their own states, not have it put off at a capital so distant that they could do nothing with it.

On the other hand, the friends of the Constitution pointed out

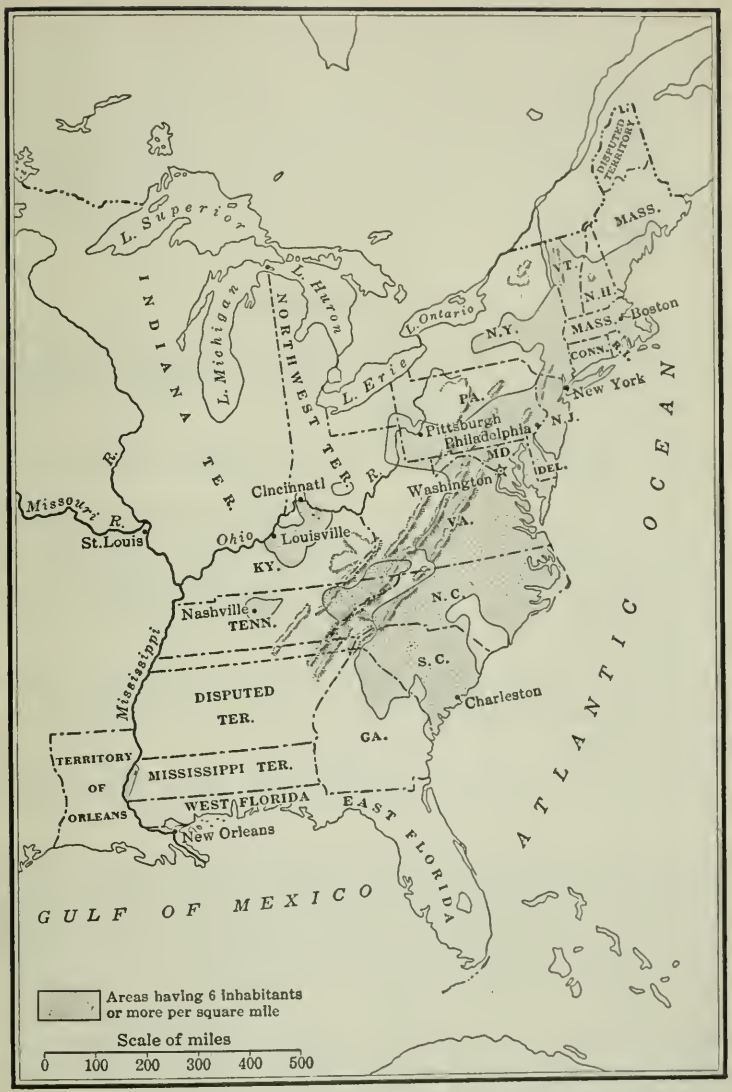
1. That the United States was falling into ruin under the old Articles.

2. That no nation could live which did not have power to raise money and pay its bills.

3. That it was necessary to have a central government which could control foreign affairs and foreign trade for the whole thirteen states.

4. That the Constitution could be amended by the vote of the legislatures of three fourths of the states if at any time it did not work well.

In addition to these arguments, many people felt sure that Washington would be the first president, and they were willing to trust any government that he would have charge of. Finally, most people felt that it would be better to accept the Constitution, even though it had defects, and then



The United States, showing the Frontier Line of 1800

remedy the defects afterwards. Eleven states agreed, but the remaining two, North Carolina and Rhode Island, refused altogether.[1] The division of the people into friends and enemies of the Constitution was the first political contest after the Revolution, the friends of the Constitution being known as the "Federalists," and its enemies as the "Anti-Federalists."

Project and Review

1. In the preamble of the Constitution is found a splendid statement of the ideals and objectives to which our nation is dedicated. It is worth committing to memory.

2. Find in the Constitution the part that indicates how it can be amended. This is Article V.

3. Look up the inscription on a half-dollar. It means "Out of many, one." Explain in what sense the expression is literally true.

4. Prepare a three-minute floor talk in support of a strong Federal government. Imagine yourself delivering this talk on the floor of the Constitutional Convention.

5. Imagine yourself a member of the Virginia convention which ratified the Constitution. Give a three-minute talk in opposition to the Constitution.

6. Read *The Story of the Constitution*, by Eva March Tappan, chaps. iii-vii.

7. Arrange the signers of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution in three lists. In one, place all those who signed both documents; in another, those who signed the Declaration only; and in a third, those who signed the Constitution only. Do you know of any reasons why some signed the Declaration but not the Constitution?

8. Select the name of any signer of the Constitution whose name is unfamiliar, and see what you can find out about him. The index of Max Farrand's *Framing of the Constitution* will help.

[1] North Carolina accepted the Constitution in 1789; Rhode Island, in 1790.

3. What Every Citizen should Know about the Constitution

The new Constitution — the "new roof," as it was called then — not only improved on the Articles and corrected the worst of their faults, but it set forth a pattern for our national life which has been followed ever since. The "Connecticut Compromise," as the agreement between the large and small states was called, gave to the national legislature its two Houses: the Senate, with two members from each state, and the House, with one member for each thirty thousand of each state's population. For example, in the session which began in 1929, five states (Arizona, Delaware, Nevada, New Mexico, and Wyoming) had only one representative each and New York had forty-three. But every state sent two senators to Washington.

Congress passes laws affecting the whole United States. An example of such a law would be one providing that any person bringing goods into any part of the United States shall pay a tax to the government.

The chief officer of the United States is the president, who is elected by the people for a term of four years.[1] It is his duty to see that the laws which Congress passes are carried out. If he thinks a law which Congress passes is unwise, he "vetoes" it; that is, he refuses to let it go into effect.[2]

[1] The election of the president is done indirectly under the Constitution. The people choose men who are called electors. As many electors are chosen in each state as the state has senators and representatives. Thus, in New York there are chosen forty-five electors, because the state has two senators and forty-three representatives in Congress. The electors then vote for the president. Every elector, however, promises beforehand whom he will vote for, so that the people really elect the president. (In 1924 there were five hundred and thirty-one electors.)

[2] This is called the veto power. If the president objects to a bill, he sends it back to Congress, stating his objections. If Congress can get two thirds of the members of each House to vote to pass the bill again, it passes in spite of the president's objections.

Sometimes after a law goes into effect, there is serious disagreement as to whether Congress had the right to pass it or not. Sometimes there is disagreement also as to just what the law means. These questions are settled by the Supreme Court, which is now composed of nine members, all of whom are expert lawyers. The Supreme Court hears cases in a room in the Capitol at Washington.

The Constitution can be changed by amendment when the legislatures of three fourths of the states agree.

The Constitution is the *supreme law of the land.* No state has the right to do anything that is forbidden by it. For example, no state can make a treaty with a foreign nation or keep any troops except with the consent of Congress. Even Congress has no right to pass any law that is forbidden in the Constitution.

Before Leaving Division Two

1. Debate one or more of the following subjects:
   - *a. Resolved,* That Yorktown should have been listed as one of the fifteen decisive battles of the world rather than Saratoga.
   - *b. Resolved,* That the employment of Hessians by George III was more of a hindrance than a help to his plans for making the colonists obey him.
   - *c. Resolved,* That the assistance of France saved the colonies from being conquered by the king.
   - *d. Resolved,* That the colonies were justified in their opposition to the king, even to the extent of open rebellion.
   - *e.* If your class is large enough, organize it into the Second Continental Congress and debate this question: *Resolved,* That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.
2. Prepare for your notebook
   - *a.* A statement about each of the events listed below which will point out how it was a distinct step toward union among the colonies and the final establishment of the American nation.

(1) The New England Confederation, 1643.
(2) The Albany Congress, 1754.
(3) The Stamp Act Congress, 1765.
(4) Nonimportation agreements, 1765.
(5) Committees of Correspondence, 1772.
(6) The First Continental Congress, 1774.
(7) The Second Continental Congress, 1775.
(8) The Articles of Confederation, 1781–1789.
(9) The Constitution, 1787.

b. Brief statements of six causes of the Revolution and six reasons for the success of the Americans.

c. A list of what the class decides are ten of the most important dates in Division Two.

d. A *Hall of Fame* for this division. Let the making of the list of persons to be included in the *Hall* be a class exercise. A majority vote of the class should be required to place a name in the *Hall*. Be ready to defend the names you propose.

e. A map, as follows:
(1) Title: The Colonies during the Revolution.
(2) Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River.
(3) Show and name the following physical features: Boston Harbor, Lake Champlain, New York Harbor, Hudson River, Delaware River, Lake Ontario, Mohawk valley, Chesapeake Bay, Allegheny Mountains, Wyoming valley, the Mississippi, Ohio, and Tennessee rivers, Illinois prairies, Potomac River.
(4) Show the boundary of each of the thirteen colonies.
(5) Locate Lexington, Concord, Bunker Hill, Long Island, Trenton, Albany, Valley Forge, Kaskaskia, Vincennes, Detroit, Boston, New York, Charleston, Philadelphia, Savannah, Camden, Yorktown, Monmouth, Saratoga, Fort Stanwix, Morristown, Princeton, Ticonderoga, Harrodsburg, Boonesboro, Pittsburgh, Nashville.

3. Be able to do the following:

a. Tell a straightforward story of Division Two.

b. Identify the following persons with the struggle for independence: Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Otis, William Pitt, Edmund Burke, Robert Morris, and Generals Gates, Greene, Howe, Cornwallis, Lafayette.

c. Identify each of the following dates with some important event and tell why it is important: 1763; 1765; July 4, 1776; 1777; 1778; 1783; 1787; 1789.

d. Without assistance from maps in books or elsewhere, make a map of the United States in 1783 which will show the chief physical features and the location of the most important cities. Name each of the thirteen states. Use an outline map of the United States east of the Mississippi River. Indicate clearly the northern, western, and southern boundaries of the United States in 1783.

e. Identify the following: "Give me liberty or give me death"; "Don't fire till you see the whites of their eyes"; Shays's Rebellion; Northwest Ordinance; nonimportation agreements; Loyalists; minutemen; Intolerable Acts; Writs of Assistance; Stamp Act; Committees of Correspondence; Boston Port Bill; Townshend Acts; Boston Massacre; Second Continental Congress.

f. Give a floor talk of four or five minutes on each of these topics or write a brief, well-organized discussion of each:

(1) The Rights and Wrongs of the Loyalists.
(2) The Compromises of the Constitution.
(3) Sections and Classes Favoring and Opposing the Constitution.
(4) The Importance of Saratoga.
(5) Services of France to the United States in the Revolution.
(6) Reasons for Changes in England's Treatment of the Colonies after 1763.
(7) Weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation.
(8) Examples of Coöperation and of Willingness to Compromise for the General Good.
(9) The Part that was played by George III in Bringing on the Revolution.

Division Three

Shaping the Nation, 1789–1860

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Foreword

When the colonists first became independent of England, they did not even know how to make a government that would give the people freedom and equality and at the same time work successfully and win the respect of other countries. But we have seen that in about a decade, which is a very short time for such a process, they found out their mistakes and made the Constitution. The Constitution was so workable that it is still used today, with less than twenty amendments.

But in 1789 most of the people in the United States still looked to Europe for ideas, just as they did for fashions in clothes and furniture. In seventy years — a short time in the life of a nation — all that was changed. The colonies had become true states, and the Federation of States had become a true nation: a body of people who loved the same government and thought in ways of their own. That nation had a character of its own, different from the characters of other nations. Every group of people in the country had given something to that national character. This division tells something of the important events of the seventy years and what each group within the nation added to the national character.

A MISSISSIPPI RIVER STEAMBOAT LANDING BETWEEN 1830 AND 1860

Read Mark Twain's description, on page 559, of the arrival of a steamboat of this kind. From a painting by Peter Hurd

Two Twenty-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

The books listed here will fill in and round out the information given in Division Three. They touch many parts of the story, and some will interest you more than others. A few pupils will find them all interesting because all sides of life come within the range of their understanding. How many of them appeal to you? When you have finished Division Three, report to your teacher how many you have read and which you like best.

1. *Hero Stories from American History*, by A. F. Blaisdell and Francis K. Ball. Ginn and Company.

   The heroes are men who helped to make the first fifty years of American national history.

2. *Log Cabin Days in Indiana*, by Ruth J. Bowlus. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

   A vivid account of home and community life in this part of the West about 1822. Contains a few good pictures.

3. *The Conquest of the Southwest*, by Cyrus T. Brady. D. Appleton and Company.

   Begins with the treaty of 1819 with Spain and ends with the Compromise of 1850. Much material on Texas and the Mexican War, and a few good pictures.

4. *From Trail to Railway through the Appalachians*, by Albert P. Brigham. Ginn and Company.

   The Erie Canal, the National Road, and the New York Central, Pennsylvania, and Baltimore and Ohio railroads. Many choice pictures and a few good maps.

5. *Pioneer Life in Kentucky*, by Daniel Drake. D. Appleton and Company.

   Letters from a father to his children about his own boyhood. An excellent picture of life on the frontier between 1788 and 1803.

6. *The Trail Blazers*, by Lawton B. Evans. Milton Bradley Company.

   The story of the Lewis and Clark expedition.

7. *Early Years of the Republic* (*1784–1811*), edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume IV of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

The condition of the country at the close of the Revolution: the election and inauguration of Washington, the invention of the cotton gin, the Whisky Rebellion, the Louisiana Purchase, the Lewis and Clark expedition, and the steamboat.

8. *The War of 1812 and After* (*1812–1828*), edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume V of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Besides material on the war, this book deals with the Monroe Doctrine, the Missouri Compromise, log-cabin building, the Erie Canal, and the return of Lafayette.

9. *The Jacksonian Period* (*1828–1840*), edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume VI of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

The stirring events of Jackson's election, the Webster-Hayne debate, the Black Hawk War, the Texan revolution, the murder of Lovejoy, the panic of 1837, and the hard-cider campaign.

10. *Slavery and the Mexican War* (*1840–1860*), edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Here are excellent accounts of the annexation of Texas, the invention of the telegraph and the sewing-machine, the Mexican War, and the important happenings between 1848 and 1860.

11. *How our Grandfathers Lived*, edited by A. B. Hart and A. B. Chapman. The Macmillan Company.

A collection of source extracts of life in town, in the country, at sea, in school, and in the army.

12. *Illinois in the Fifties*, by Charles B. Johnson. Flanigan-Pearson Company.

A description of things, people, and conditions as the author saw and knew them. You will enjoy both the reading matter and the pictures.

13. *The Story of Robert Fulton*, by Inez N. McFee. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

Contains much material on early steamboats and steamboating.

14. *The Story of Harriet Beecher Stowe*, by R. B. MacArthur. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

The author of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* had an interesting life from many points of view. You will enjoy reading this book.

15. *Ox-Team Days on the Oregon Trail*, by Ezra Meeker. World Book Company.

Ezra Meeker was a great character in the northwest for many years. This is his story of life on the Oregon Trail, mainly between 1845 and 1865.

16. *Supplementary Studies in American History*, Book Two, by Genevieve Melody. Lyons and Carnahan.

Valuable material from Washington's days to Jackson's.

17. *The Story of Mary Lyon*, by H. Oxley Stengel. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

An account of the work of one of America's most famous women, who devoted her life to founding a school where girls could obtain an education at low money cost.

18. *The Story of Thomas Jefferson*, by Gene Stone. Another of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

The story of the man who has probably done more to shape American thought than any other one man.

19. *The White Indian Boy*, by E. N. Wilson. World Book Company.

A thrilling story of life in the region of Colorado, Nevada, Wyoming, Idaho, and Montana during the fifteen years before 1865. Much is said about the Indians, the pony express, and the overland stage.

20. *The Spanish in the Southwest*, by Rosa V. Winterburn. American Book Company.

What was happening in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California before they became part of the United States.

II. A Story-Book Library

1. *The Wilderness Road*, by J. A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

Describes the conflicts with the Indians during the early history of the Ohio valley. A romance of St. Clair's defeat and Wayne's victory.

2. *Johnny Appleseed*, by Eleanor Atkinson. Harper & Brothers.

The beautiful (and in its main outlines true) story of Jonathan Chapman, who made the Middle West bright with apple bloom. The fairy island of the Blennerhassets figures in this most charming American classic.

3. *The Story of David Crockett*, by Jane Corby. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

A story full of adventure. Crockett was one of the last of the hundred and sixty-six Americans to fall in the famous battle of the Alamo.

4. *The Hoosier School Boy*, by Edward Eggleston. Charles Scribner's Sons.

School life in the Indiana backwoods in the eighteen-fifties.

5. *The Boyhood of Abraham Lincoln*, by J. Rogers Gore. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Fascinating stories given to the author by a playmate of Lincoln's who spent all his life among the hills of Larue County, Kentucky. Interesting side lights on the boyhood of a great man.

6. *Fighting Westward*, by Aline Havard. Charles Scribner's Sons.

How people went west and northwest in 1848.

7. *Among the Fur Traders*, by James Kaler. Penn Publishing Company.

Fur-trading experiences in the Northwest about 1810.

8. *The Bears of Blue River*, by Charles Major. The Macmillan Company.

Life near Indianapolis during the twenties. Good to show the dangers and hardships of pioneer life.

9. *On the Borders with Andrew Jackson*, by John T. McIntyre. Penn Publishing Company.

The title suggests the contents.

10. *The Totem of the Black Hawk*, by Everett McNeil. E. P. Dutton & Company.

Pioneer life in the Middle West, especially in northern Illinois after 1830.

11. *With Crockett and Bowie*, by Kirk Munroe. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A tale of Texas. The story of the struggle by means of which Texas gained her independence.

12. *Letters of Polly the Pioneer*, by Stella Humphrey Nida. The Macmillan Company.

A word picture of pioneer life in the West during the eighteen-twenties. Easy and interesting reading. A few good pictures.

13. *The American Twins of 1812*, by Lucy Fitch Perkins. Houghton Mifflin Company.

An easy-to-read story of stirring adventures during the War of 1812. A book in great demand by young students of American history.

14. *The Great Pike's Peak Rush*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

The Pikes Peak country of the Rocky Mountains in 1859.

15. *With Carson and Frémont*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

A thrilling story of the adventures of Carson and Frémont in the West during the years 1842–1844.

16. *Lost with Lieutenant Pike*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

Pike's expedition in the West.

17. *Opening the West with Lewis and Clark*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

The title suggests what the story is about. Describes the country through which Lewis and Clark went.

18. *Ella — A Little School Girl of the Sixties*, by Eva March Tappan. Houghton Mifflin Company.

A girl's life in a seminary and in the public schools.

19. *The Boys with Old Hickory*, by E. T. Tomlinson. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

The closing campaign of the War of 1812; Jackson at New Orleans.

20. *Boy Sailors of 1812*, by E. T. Tomlinson. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

The War of 1812, especially Perry's deeds on Lake Erie.

A Table of Politics and Administrations, 1789–1930

Dates of Party Control	Dates of Administrations		Number of Terms
Federalist, 1789–1801 (twelve years)	1789–1797	Washington	2
	1797–1801	John Adams	1
Republican, 1801–1841 (forty years)			
Jeffersonian democracy	1801–1809	Jefferson	2
	1809–1817	Madison	2
	1817–1825	Monroe	2
	1825–1829	John Quincy Adams	1
Jacksonian democracy	1829–1837	Jackson	2
	1837–1841	Van Buren	1
Whig and Democratic, 1841–1861 (twenty years)			
Whig	1841–1845	W. H. Harrison and Tyler	1
Democratic	1845–1849	Polk	1
Whig	1849–1853	Taylor and Fillmore	1
Democratic	1853–1857	Pierce	1
	1857–1861	Buchanan	1
Republican, 1861–1885 (twenty-four years)	1861–1869	Lincoln; Lincoln-Johnson	2
	1869–1877	Grant	2
	1877–1881	Hayes	1
	1881–1885	Garfield-Arthur	1
Republican and Democratic, 1885–1930 (forty-five years)			
Democratic	1885–1889	Cleveland	1
Republican	1889–1893	Benjamin Harrison	1
Democratic	1893–1897	Cleveland	1
Republican	1897–1905	McKinley; McKinley-Roosevelt	2
	1905–1909	Roosevelt	1
	1909–1913	Taft	1
Democratic	1913–1921	Wilson	2
Republican	1921–1925	Harding-Coolidge	1
	1925–1929	Coolidge	1
	1929–	Hoover	

Division Three

Shaping the Nation, 1789–1860

UNIT I. HOW THE FEDERALISTS SHAPED THE NATION

1. Washington makes a Dignified Beginning

The American colonists were the first people to rebel against old ways and laws and to set up a new country of their own. Their ideas were so modern and strange to most people in Europe and even to many people in America that they were considered very radical and dangerous. The cautious people of Europe were glad that a great ocean flowed between them and those wild republicans who intended to select their own rulers instead of humbly taking the ones that were put over them. They wanted nothing to do with such dangerous folk, just as a well-brought-up child does not care to associate with a wild hoodlum who is always getting into trouble.

The new nation was therefore in a bad way, since it needed that association very much. Its comfort, its commerce, even its culture, depended very largely on being friendly with

Europe. The Americans were independent in their political life, but they were not yet independent in their ways of living and thinking. The Europeans, on their part, went on for a time doing things as they always had, but they watched the dangerous Americans out of the corners of their eyes. If the Americans kept on doing things as wild as making revolutions against their king, the Europeans wanted even less to do with them than was then the case. But if they showed by common-sense actions that they were sensible men and had done with revolution, then Europe might trade with America and honor the new government. All Europeans had learned to respect Franklin and Washington, but they could not even guess what a Samuel Adams or a Patrick Henry might do.

That is why the administration of Washington and Hamilton is so important.[1] Those great men saw that things should now be orderly, quiet, and familiar. It was not the time to be doing any more new things or bringing in new ideas. Washington wished the life and manners about him to be like those of European gentlemen, and they were. This won the approval of the European people. Hamilton proposed to do business in America as it was done by the European business men and nations, and it was so done. This convinced European business men that it was safe to deal with Americans, and after a time when they had a chance they began to trade or invest their money in America. The wisdom of Washington and Hamilton made the new country more sure of itself than it had been in the years 1776–1789, and made foreign nations respect it. This was a good beginning, and it made a foundation for progress later on.

[1] The period during which a president, with his cabinet and other helpers, rules the country is called his administration.

As soon as the Constitution was adopted by all the states (except Rhode Island and North Carolina), plans were made for setting the new government to work. It was by no means sure in the early days that the attempt to start an American republic would succeed. Everybody, from Washington down, felt that the United States was an experiment which might succeed or might fail. For this reason everything that Washington did helped to answer the question Can a republic be founded in America that will stand?

Election and Inauguration of Washington. It was decided to start the new government on the first Wednesday in March, 1789. The first Wednesday fell on March 4, and ever since that time each new president has gone into power on the fourth day of March. It was decided also that the city of New York should be the capital for the time being.

There was no doubt about the choice of the first president. Everybody wanted Washington. Washington himself much preferred to remain at Mount Vernon; in fact, when he was going from his home up to New York to be inaugurated he said that he felt like a prisoner on the way to his execution. Since Washington was from the South, it was felt that a Northerner ought to be chosen for vice president, and John Adams of Massachusetts was elected.

Because of several delays it was not until April 30, 1789, that Washington was inaugurated. A building on Wall Street in New York City had been prepared for use as the capitol building. On a balcony overlooking the street, Washington took the oath of office, by which he promised to perform faithfully the duties of the presidency. After the oath was taken, the chief law officer of New York, Robert R. Livingston, turned to the people and shouted, "Long Live George Washington, President of the United

Mount Vernon, the Home of Washington

This estate, very near the capital city, is kept much as it was in Washington's day. Thousands of citizens who visit the seat of their government go also to see the home that was so loved by the Father of his Country. It contains many gifts sent to him by foreign powers; among other treasures, the key to the Bastille. Washington is buried in a vault not far from the house. After his death Lady Washington moved to an attic room from which she could see his tomb every day

States!" Cheers broke out, cannon were fired, and the church bells were rung. The experiment of establishing a republic was now fairly begun.

From the balcony, Washington turned to the room where the Senate was to meet, and there he addressed a joint session of the House and the Senate. The members of Congress had been having an argument with one another over the title to be given to Washington. Some favored the form "His Highness, the President of the United States of America, and Protector of their Liberties" — a title that sounded like those of kings and emperors. In the end a much simpler one was chosen: "The President of the United States."

In everything that he did Washington tried to unite

At One of Mrs. Washington's Receptions

Mrs. Washington held a reception every Friday evening, which closed at nine o'clock, the bedtime of the presidential family. She was known in society as Lady Washington, and was as dignified and gracious as her husband. Her "levees" were like a queen's receptions in England or France. The title "Lady" has never since her day been used for the president's wife, who is, however, known as the First Lady of the Land. (From a painting by Daniel Huntington in the Brooklyn Museum)

simplicity with great dignity. People did not agree as to how a president should behave toward the people: whether he should keep himself apart and act like a king, or mix freely with everyone like any other citizen. Washington did not go to either extreme. That the people might have a chance to see the head of their government, he received visitors every Tuesday afternoon from three to four o'clock. On these occasions he wore a black-velvet suit with knee breeches. His hair was powdered white, he carried a hat in his hand, and at one side he wore a sword in a white-leather scabbard. When the President drove out with Mrs. Washington his carriage was drawn by four or six white horses, and there were attendants on horseback who were dressed in uniform and had their hair powdered.

John Adams **Alexander Hamilton**

Adams was born in Massachusetts in 1735 and died in 1826. To him, as to Hamilton, is due much of the good start which the nation made in 1789–1800. Hamilton was born in the West Indies in 1757. At the age of eleven he went to work in a business office, and when he was twelve he was left for a time in charge of the office. At fifteen he left the West Indies, came alone to the United States, and became a student at Columbia University. He served under Washington in the Revolution. He was killed in a duel with Aaron Burr in 1804. The portrait of Adams is from a painting by Gilbert Stuart; that of Hamilton is from one by John Trumbull

The First Cabinet. Among the first things that Washington himself had to think about was the selection of men to take charge of foreign affairs, the Treasury, the army, and the legal business of the government; in other words, to select a "cabinet." As Secretary of State, to take charge of foreign affairs, he chose Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence. Alexander Hamilton was appointed Secretary of the Treasury. Hamilton was only thirty-two years old; but he had been Washington's private secretary during part of the Revolution, had shown bravery as an artillery officer, and had taken a prominent part in securing the adoption of the Constitution. Henry Knox, Secretary of War, had been an artillery officer. Edmund

Randolph, the Attorney-General, or law officer, had been governor of Virginia. Washington looked on these four men as his advisers, or cabinet, and was accustomed to consult them on many important matters.

The Work of the First Congress. Congress too had difficult tasks. All through the summer of 1789 it worked with the important questions of what laws should be passed first. It decided that, first of all, it must arrange to have the bills of the government paid. Under the leadership of James Madison, who was in the House of Representatives, the first tariff act answered this question. It said that those who imported goods into the United States must pay a tariff, or tax, of about eight cents for every dollar's worth of goods. This plan was successful from the start, and provided money to pay the salaries of the president, the members of Congress, and other officers, and to take care of ships and buildings belonging to the government.

Establishing Courts and Amending the Constitution. Congress then turned its attention to the establishment of courts. The most important of these was the Supreme Court. Six judges were appointed for this body, John Jay being Chief Justice.

In the meantime the opponents of the Constitution were beginning to demand additions, or amendments, to that document. Several of the states had accepted the Constitution only on the understanding that amendments would be added. Seventy-eight changes were suggested, seventeen of which were accepted by the House. The Senate cut the number down to twelve, and these were sent to the states. The states accepted ten of them, and these became the first ten amendments to the Constitution under which we are living today.

2. Hamilton's Great Program

Secretary Hamilton wanted both the people and the government to be prosperous, for he thought prosperity would make them happy at home and highly respected abroad. To bring this about, he proposed four great plans which, taken together, make up his program.[1]

Four Great Laws. The amount of the debt that the United States owed foreign countries and Americans who had lent money during the Revolution was about $54,000,000. Hamilton proposed to pay off this entire debt in the course of time and thus establish the credit of the United States among the nations of the world. This was done.

Although the first of Hamilton's projects was accepted by Congress without much debate, the second plan was less fortunate. He proposed that the national government take over, or "assume" and pay, the debts that the states owed on account of the Revolution. Some of the states had already paid part of their debts, and they did not wish to help toward paying the debts of other states. For the most part the Northern states were ready to agree to Hamilton's plan. The Southern states were not.

It was just at this time that the question of the permanent location of the capital came up. Pennsylvania wanted it at Philadelphia; the Southerners wanted it on the Potomac. Hamilton and Jefferson then arranged a bargain: Hamilton influenced his friends to agree to have the capital in the South, and Jefferson influenced his friends to vote for "assumption." It was finally agreed that the capital should be in Philadelphia for ten years (until 1800), and then on the Potomac at a place picked out by Washington. Congress agreed to the assumption of the state debts at the same time.

[1] The daily school "program" tells pupils and visitors what is to be done. The word is often used, as here, for a plan of action by a nation.

3. The third of Hamilton's plans was intended to bring in more income, as the tariff did not bring in enough. The plan was to levy a tax called an "excise," or internal-revenue tax, on every gallon of whisky made in the country. Congress agreed to this, but trouble soon came of it. The people of western Pennsylvania made whisky of their rye, wheat, and corn. They were far away from the markets of the East, and the roads were poor. So they distilled the grain into whisky, which could be carried more easily because of its smaller bulk. They refused to pay the tax; but when Washington sent an army of fifteen thousand men the resistance died out at once. Washington pardoned the leaders of this Whisky Rebellion. The incident showed that the new government could enforce its laws.

4. The fourth great suggestion was a national bank. There were only three banks in the whole United States when Washington became president. People were obliged to hide their money in their own homes. Hamilton's plan was for a great bank at Philadelphia, with branches in the chief cities, which would be partly controlled by the government and would have a charter that would allow it to run for twenty years. It required $10,000,000 to start the bank. The government was to put in $2,000,000 of this, and the people $8,000,000. Congress and the President consented; and on July 4, 1791, the officials of the bank let the people invest their money in the new enterprise. Within two hours the entire $8,000,000 was invested.

Federalists and Republicans. It is necessary to note exactly these plans of Hamilton's, because they split the American people into two groups: the friends of his schemes (who called themselves Federalists), and their enemies (who were known as Republicans[1]). Hamilton had three objects

[1] This is the party which is now called the Democratic party. The present Republican party began much later.

in mind: (1) He wanted to show all the nations of the world that the United States would pay its bills to the last penny. (2) He hoped, by getting the wealthy and powerful people of the country to put their money into the United States Bank, to make them interested in the United States government. (3) He hoped to make the central government more powerful than the states. This would come to pass when it had a big revenue from the tariff and the excise. When the Pennsylvania farmers rebelled against the excise, he was glad of a chance to show the power of the Federal government by sending a big army to stamp out the trouble.

But a great many other people were bitterly opposed to Hamilton and everything he did. They feared that he would turn the United States into a sort of kingdom ruled by a few rich people. Hamilton made no secret of his belief that most people could not be trusted to choose public officers and conduct the government; hence the farmers and laboring men began to be suspicious of him. The merchants, traders, and bankers supported him. The poorer men turned to Thomas Jefferson for their leader, because Jefferson believed in trusting the common people to take part in the government.

Business Conditions during Washington's Administration. In the early years of the new government, business prospered on account of the wise acts of President Washington, the four plans of Hamilton, the sensible form of government laid down by the Constitution, the great resources of the country in people, land, and forests, and the demand of Europe for American goods. The bank was successful from the start. It made the money more uniform, since all the good banks tried to make their paper money as good as that of the National Bank. Business men found it of great service, and other banks were started. Agriculture and manufacturing prospered, and foreign trade increased rapidly.

Review

1. Make a list of four reasons that could have been given in 1789 for doubting the success of the new republic.

2. List five customs that were started while Washington was president and are still followed today.

3. Now is the time to read the first ten amendments to the Constitution. Turn to Appendix B and do this.

4. Show in a three-minute floor talk that good roads might have prevented the Whisky Rebellion.

5. Show why the farmers opposed Hamilton's plans and why the merchants favored them.

6. Make a list of five reasons why business prospered during Washington's administration.

7. Test yourself on the meaning of the following words and expressions: assumption, excise, Whisky Rebellion, National Bank, Federalists, Republicans, administration, program, cabinet.

Projects and Enrichment

1. Read "The Election and Inauguration of Washington," by Washington Irving, in *Early Years of the Republic* (1784–1811), pp. 51–61, Volume IV of Great Epochs in American History; pages 18–24 in *A New Nation* (edited by C. L. Barstow) on the same subject; and Eva March Tappan's *Story of our Constitution*, chaps. viii–x.

2. Could one of Hamilton's plans have been adopted without the other?

3. If you had lived at that time, would you have followed Hamilton or Jefferson? Defend your position in a short floor talk before the class.

3. Patience and Tact with Foreign Powers

For many years after the election of President Washington there was danger of war with France or England, or with both. A brief glance at conditions in Europe at this time will show why it was so difficult for our early presidents to keep out of a war.

The French Revolution, 1789. As Washington was beginning his administration, the second great overthrow of kingly power was taking place in Europe. The French people, who had been much more unjustly taxed than the American colonists and were allowed much less voice in affairs, became so vexed with this despotism that they killed their king and established a republic. There was a "reign of terror" in France, and a civil war between the king's friends and the new government. Then some of the other kings became alarmed lest they too might lose their thrones, and the French had to fight outside enemies as well.

Washington's Stand for Neutrality. Many people in America were highly excited about this revolution and the war that followed, but Washington was calm. He felt that the United States would be ruined if it got mixed up in a European war just as it was beginning to pay its debts and develop industry. For that reason he made a public statement, or "proclamation," on April 22, 1793, saying that the United States would be friendly to both sides in the contest.

The French, however, expected help from us because they had helped the United States. A messenger named Genêt was sent over with orders to get the United States to aid France. He was received with tremendous enthusiasm, especially by the followers of Jefferson. Washington refused to budge from his opinion that the United States ought to keep out of war, and then Genêt thought that he could get the people to act against Washington's opinion. On this Genêt quickly lost his popularity and had to give up his office and his attempt to influence America.

The First War fought by the United States. France was greatly disappointed, for she had hoped to have the United States for an ally against her enemy. Thereupon President John Adams, who followed Washington in 1797,

sent over three men to discuss relations between the United States and France. When they arrived three Frenchmen met them and said that the government would not talk with them until a bribe had been paid. The Americans refused to pay the bribe and sent an account of the matter to Adams. Adams laid it before Congress, using the letters X, Y, and Z for the real names of the Frenchmen. Everybody — Republicans and Federalists, Congress and people — was intensely angry about the "XYZ Affair." Three warships were at once put in readiness for fighting. "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute" became a popular cry. For two years American ships fought French ships, although there was no formal declaration of war. Neither side won any decisive victory. The quarrel was settled in 1800, when Napoleon came into power. He did not want a war with the United States, and quickly made a fair and honorable peace.[1]

4. The Overthrow of the Federalists

The Alien and Sedition Acts. Other foreigners besides Genêt made trouble in those days, especially by criticizing the administration. Some native-born writers and speakers also attacked Washington and Adams fiercely and unjustly. The supporters of the administration passed an Alien Law, making it much harder for a foreigner to become a citizen. They also passed a Sedition Act, forbidding people to stir up hatred against any government official.

The Sedition Act, of course, was aimed at the Republicans, who had been saying such bitter things about the Federalists. Jefferson and Madison, the two leading Republicans, could

[1] During this time, when the feeling against France was so strong, Joseph Hopkinson wrote the words of the song "Hail Columbia," which is still widely sung.

not have the law repealed by Congress, for there were more Federalists than Republicans in that body; so they aroused the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky to protest. The Virginia legislature adopted some resolutions condemning the Sedition Act. The Kentucky resolutions declared that the Constitution did not give Congress the right to pass such laws, and that the states ought to "nullify" them; that is, prevent their going into force.

Feeling ran high among the Republicans, for the Sedition Act looked to them like an attempt to prevent all criticism of the government. Jefferson and his friends began to organize their party more carefully, working especially among the farmers, mechanics, and poorer classes, who were already suspicious of the sort of government that Washington, Hamilton, and Adams gave them. When the election of a president again took place in 1800, it was seen how well the Republicans had done their work. Adams, who wished to be elected president again, was defeated, and Jefferson was chosen in his place. The Federalists never again elected a president, and after a few unsuccessful attempts to do so the party fell to pieces.

John Marshall, the Last of the Federalists. Just before John Adams left the presidency he appointed John Marshall, a prominent Federalist, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Marshall believed thoroughly in Hamilton's principles, and, as it happened, he was at the head of the court for thirty-four years. During this time the court made a large number of very important decisions. Since Marshall was an unusually able judge, he generally succeeded in persuading the rest of the court to agree with him; hence for thirty-four years, although the Federalist party was dying out, the decisions of the Supreme Court were such as Hamilton would have favored if he had been alive.

Review

1. Write these four topics on four slips of paper: (1) Inaugurating the Government; (2) Hamilton's Program; (3) Difficulties with Europe; (4) The Formation of Two Parties. Hand the four slips to a class member, who tries in three minutes to cover topic (1) and hands the rest of the slips to someone who talks on topic (2), and so on.

2. Show in what respects the American and French revolutions were alike and in what respects they were different.

3. Account for the sympathy of Jefferson and his followers for France and their hatred of England.

4. Tell the story of the XYZ Affair clearly to the class.

UNIT II. HOW THE REPUBLICANS SHAPED THE NATION

We have seen that Washington, Hamilton, and Adams made the nation like older nations and thus won for it respect and confidence both at home and abroad. But even while they were doing that good work, Jefferson and his followers were eager to drive them from office so as to put some of their own new ideas into practice. The election of 1800 showed that the voters wanted to give Jefferson's ideas a trial.

1. Jefferson Introduces Some Truly American Ideas

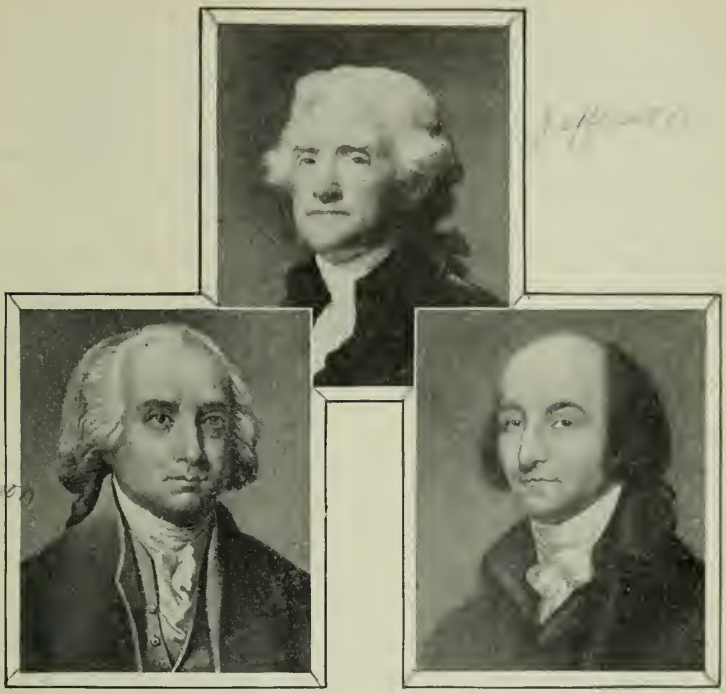
The New Era of Jeffersonian Democracy. The inauguration of Jefferson on March 4, 1801, was the first to take place in the city of Washington. The city was very new and crude, and the inauguration was as simple as it could be made. Toward noon, from his boarding-house not far away, Jefferson walked to the Capitol with some friends and a troop of militia. He was met in the Senate chamber by Aaron Burr, the new vice president, and conducted to his

seat. After a short pause he rose and, in a very low voice, read his message to the assembled people.[1]

Some of Jefferson's ideas were such that he could put them into effect, and some were so far ahead of his time that they have not yet been worked out in practice. He disliked Washington's way of holding formal receptions and driving about in state, and began to live very simply, almost like an ordinary citizen. He thought the government should be run with as little expense as possible, and he was able to cut down expenses by having a smaller army and navy. By these savings and others he was able to pay off a third of the national debt in eight years. This work was chiefly done by Jefferson's skillful Secretary of the Treasury, Albert Gallatin.

A third idea of Jefferson's was that war was wrong and should be avoided. But the rest of the world was then in no mood to live at peace, and Jefferson soon found that he could not be a pacifist in his day. No sooner was the navy reduced than there arose a grave need for it. On the northern coast of Africa there were several small countries whose inhabitants were accustomed to send out war vessels to prey upon small ships. These people were known as the Barbary pirates. European nations had long been accustomed to pay the pirates for leaving their ships alone. The United States had done the same. Just before Jefferson became president, the United States built some war vessels for the war with France. Jefferson used these ships to whip the Barbary pirates in 1803. Under the command of Bainbridge, Decatur, Preble, and others, the vessels went over and so thoroughly defeated the pirates that there was no more trouble.

[1] Although Jefferson read his inauguration speech, his messages to Congress during both terms were sent in written form. This custom was then followed by all the presidents until 1913.



James Madison, Thomas Jefferson (above), and Albert Gallatin

Jefferson was born in Virginia in 1743 and died there on July 4, 1826, the very day when John Adams died, which was the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration. James Madison was born in Virginia in 1751; he died in 1836. Madison was a little man, very quiet, neat, and polite. Albert Gallatin was a Swiss-American financier, who served the country ably as Secretary of the Treasury under Jefferson. The portrait of Jefferson is by Gilbert Stuart, and hangs in the Bowdoin Museum at Brunswick, Maine. Gallatin's portrait is by Rembrandt Peale, and hangs in Independence Hall

The Purchase of Louisiana. While President Jefferson was bothering about such small matters as cutting down here and there the cost of running the government, he was suddenly faced with the opportunity to do something of great importance.

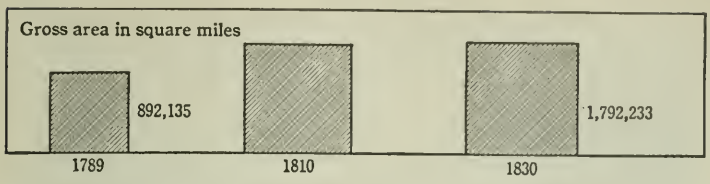
The western boundary of the United States, we remember,

was at the Mississippi River. Beyond the Mississippi, extending to the Rocky Mountains, was an enormous region known as Louisiana. It included also a little land east of the Mississippi where the city of New Orleans is. Louisiana had for some years been owned by Spain, but *Spain had sold it to France* just before Jefferson became president. Jefferson was worried by the news; for France was now under the control of Napoleon, an ambitious, powerful ruler who was continually at war with other European nations. What would happen to America if New Orleans were controlled by Napoleon?

Jefferson sent James Monroe to France to talk with our minister there, Robert R. Livingston, to find out whether Napoleon would sell New Orleans. Monroe was to offer two million dollars. In the meantime Napoleon was debating whether he wanted to keep any of Louisiana. He was on the verge of another war with England, and money would be necessary for that. It would cost men and money to defend Louisiana in case of danger. Hence Napoleon suddenly offered Monroe and Livingston the whole of Louisiana — New Orleans and the enormous territory as far as the Rocky Mountains. The American diplomats decided to accept the offer, and the price agreed on was about $15,000,000.

But Jefferson thought that the Constitution did not allow the United States to buy more land. While he was hesitating he heard that Napoleon was thinking about withdrawing the offer, and then he decided that he had better take the bargain while he could. It was too great a chance to miss.

When the people heard of Jefferson's actions, there was a general agreement in Congress and outside that he had done well, although the few Federalists that were left were inclined at first to oppose. New England was especially uneasy. That section was so small compared with the Louisiana Purchase that it looked as if New England would be over-



Increase in the Area of the United States, 1789–1830

shadowed by the great West. One New England leader even threatened later that the New England states might leave the Union because of Jefferson's act, but nothing came of the threat.

The Exploration of the Louisiana Purchase. Just what the United States had purchased nobody knew, not even Jefferson himself. The boundaries were indefinite, and the value of the territory was undreamed of. Rumors said that Indians of gigantic size inhabited it, that the land was so fertile that products grew almost without attention from human hands, and that far up the Missouri River was a mountain of pure white salt one hundred and eighty-five miles long and forty-five miles wide.

The Lewis and Clark Expedition. Under Jefferson's direction a band of explorers was gathered, commanded by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark (the latter a brother of George Rogers Clark, who had earlier conquered the territory north of the Ohio River). For six months Lewis and Clark drilled and trained their men, and in 1804 they set out with forty-five followers up the Missouri River. Their route up the Missouri, across the mountains, down the Columbia River, and back to St. Louis may easily be traced on the map (p. 203); but no words can fully describe the mass of information which they gathered or the dangers of rivers and floods, of wild beasts and Indians, which they faced. On their return men knew for the first time what actually was in the far Northwest. They realized that in

buying Louisiana, they had gained control of the wonderful Mississippi Valley. Moreover, this expedition gave the United States a claim to the territory west of the Rocky Mountains and opened the way for fur-trappers and fur-traders.

While Lewis and Clark were in the far Northwest, Zebulon M. Pike was trying to find the source of the Mississippi River. When he returned from this trip he led another expedition up the Arkansas River. On the stream first, and then on horseback, Pike made his way into the mountains until he reached the spot where Pueblo, Colorado, now stands. A high mountain near the present city of Colorado Springs was named Pikes Peak in honor of the brave explorer.

Success of Jefferson's Republican Policies. In 1804 Jefferson was reëlected with scarcely any opposition. Even New England gave him considerable support. His policies had satisfied the great body of the people:

The government had been run economically.

The national debt had been reduced.

The purchase of Louisiana was generally popular.

The people liked a president who trusted them and who thought they knew enough to help run their own government.

2. How Jefferson and Madison were Forced into War

In 1803 France and England were at war once more. France, led by Napoleon, won the battles on the land, and England won the sea fights. Neither was able to win a complete victory over the other. While the war dragged on, the American merchants were furnishing food and supplies to both sides. They realized that if they could only keep out of war themselves they could make great profits. France especially turned to the United States for her supplies, and the American vessels carried flour, tobacco, and cotton to

Present-Day View of the Columbia River (traversed by Lewis and Clark)

Up this river today there runs the Columbia River Highway, a road of rare beauty. (Copyright by Cross & Dimmett)

Pikes Peak as it is Today

Europe, where the prices were double what they were at home. It was claimed that if one ship in three successfully landed its cargo the profits would be large.

But England and France attacked these American ships on the seas. England claimed that the United States was helping France by taking her food and cotton, and France claimed that the Americans were helping England in the same way. Since England had more ships on the seas than France, she did more harm to American merchantmen than her enemy did.

Complaints against England. The hatred of England that had sprung up before and during the Revolution now flared up again. The shipowners hated to lose their valuable ships with their precious cargoes. But worse than this was the "impressment" of sailors that went on at the same time. At that time the British navy was so large that it needed great numbers of sailors, more than could be found to enlist. To make up the lack, men were seized on streets and in taverns, carried aboard ships, and forced to serve. Many of the officers were brutally severe. The food was bad, and the quarters of the sailors were dirty and crowded. Hence thousands of sailors deserted to American merchant ships, where wages and conditions of work were better. Many of these deserters took out naturalization papers and became American citizens.[1]

Thereupon the English ship captains stopped American vessels and searched the crews for British deserters. Sometimes they took off, or "impressed," deserters who were still British, sometimes naturalized Americans, and sometimes native-born Americans. Once impressed, these men were cruelly treated and rarely allowed to return to America.

[1] England paid no attention to naturalization. She held that "once an Englishman, always an Englishman"; that is, if a man were born an Englishman he could never be naturalized into an American.

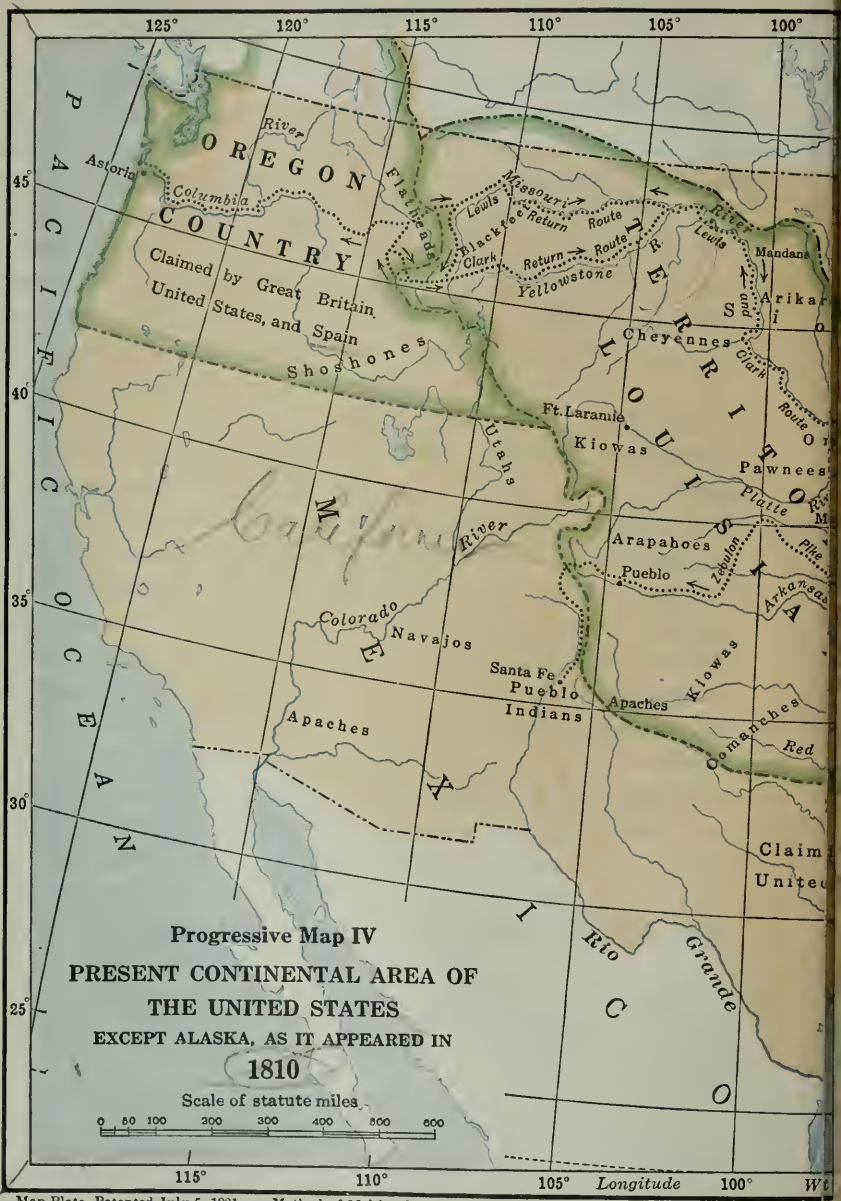
Jefferson's Embargo Policy. Jefferson wanted to avoid war, and he remembered that at the time of the Stamp Act and the Townshend Act the colonies had brought England to terms in another way; namely, by stopping trade with her. He persuaded Congress to adopt the embargo policy. The Embargo Act forbade American vessels to sail to foreign ports. But instead of bringing either England or France to treat American ships fairly, this only hurt American shipping. Many seamen were thrown out of work. Ships lay idle at the wharves. Goods and food could not be sold. Grass began to grow around the docks.

In New England, where the shipping business was very important, the people hated Jefferson for this attempt to help them. They consistently broke the law when they could, and some states even suggested that they leave the Union.[1] At last Jefferson found the opposition so great and the results of the law so poor that he asked Congress to repeal the act. This was done just before he left the White House, in March, 1809. He felt that two terms were enough for any president to serve.[2] James Madison, who had been his Secretary of State, became the fourth president.

Drifting toward War. Madison was a follower of Jefferson, and he wanted war no more than his leader. He tried in vain to ward it off by threatening to stop trade. In 1811 the American ship *President* beat the English *Little Belt* after another unjust impressment had taken place.

[1] Some opponents of the law amused themselves by turning around the letters of the word "embargo." They said that the letters reversed spelled "o-grab-me." "Go-bar-em," and "mob-rage" would result if the law were not repealed.

[2] After his two terms of office were over, Jefferson went to his home in Virginia, where he lived until 1826. He died on July 4, fifty years after the passage of the Declaration of Independence. As Adams was dying he was heard to say, "Thomas Jefferson still lives." In reality, Jefferson had died a few hours before.



Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 • Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921

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Out in Indiana the white settlers were being attacked by Indians. The settlers thought that the Indians were stirred up by British soldiers and traders. Under General William Henry Harrison the pioneers whipped the Indians at the battle of Tippecanoe. These events made many Americans feel that they could defeat England again, and teach her not to steal Americans from their own ships. This feeling was very strong in the new Western states and in the South, which had its own Indian troubles. In Congress there was a group of young statesmen, led by Henry Clay of Kentucky and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, who were known as the "war hawks." Jefferson and Adams had retired from office; Washington and Hamilton were dead; leadership fell to these younger men, who were strong and self-willed and confident. They decided on war.

Mrs. James Madison

Pretty "Dolly" Madison was a famous White House hostess. Her own house still stands in Washington, the present home of a club. (From a painting by Gilbert Stuart in the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts. Copyright by Detroit Publishing Company)

The War of 1812. The country was not at all ready to fight. The army was very small, — six thousand seven hundred men, — and its generals were old men who had fought in the Revolution. The navy numbered twelve vessels; England had about eight hundred. The Treasury was almost empty. New England, with all its people and

wealth, was against a war; it preferred to spend its energy in trade. Those who favored the war, however, said that the chances to win were good. Although the navy was small, they said, there were no sailors in the world like those of America. England might have a huge army and navy, but she was busy fighting Napoleon. America was three thousand miles from England, and was so big that it could continue to live, as it had in the Revolution, even if it lost battles.

England was not anxious to have war with the United States. On June 16, 1812, the English government announced that it would stop attacks on American commerce. On June 18 President Madison and Congress agreed on a declaration of war, for there was no cable to tell them what had happened in London.

On to Canada! The war hawks boasted that the United States could invade Canada and take from England her one remaining great colony in America. Clay even said that the Kentucky militia could do it alone. It was planned to invade Canada from four places at the same time, after which the four armies would meet at Montreal. The expeditions were to start from Lake Champlain, Sacketts Harbor, Niagara, and Detroit.[1] The first move was made at Detroit, where General William Hull was in command. Hull had served honorably in the Revolution, but he was now a timid old man. In July, 1812, he led his little army across the river from Detroit into Canada, and then he led them back again to Detroit. Isaac Brock, the Canadian general, followed him and made ready to attack. To Brock's astonishment Hull surrendered without a struggle. In this way the Americans lost an army and the fort of Detroit, which controlled the

[1] As you read, follow all the movements carefully on the map, locating each place and drawing mental lines from place to place. Test yourself later to see if you have a mind picture of the map and the soldiers' movements and battles. Do this also for the later wars.

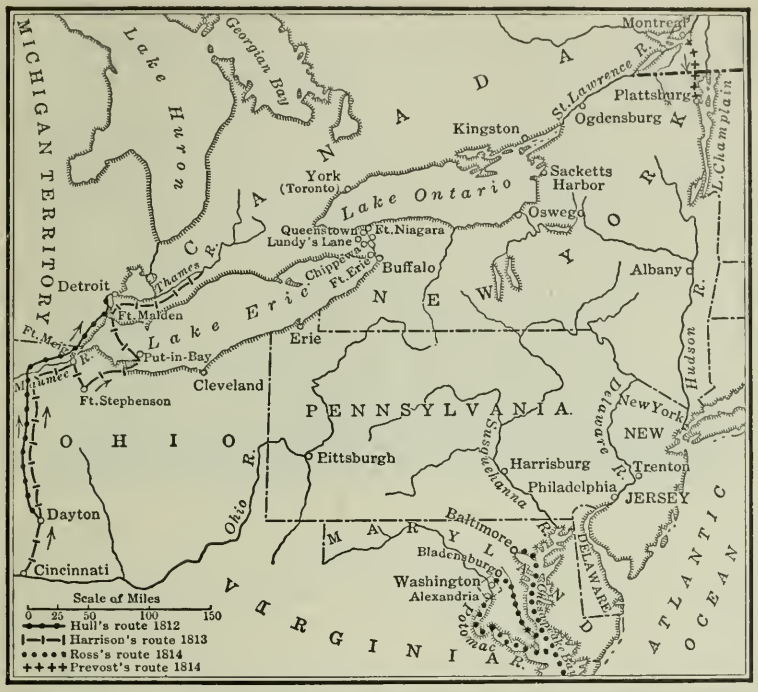
whole territory of Michigan. The plan to invade Canada was ruined, and the United States was discouraged at the start.[1]

The attempts to invade Canada from other points were also dismal failures. One expedition started from Plattsburg, near Lake Champlain, but on reaching the border refused to go out of the country and returned harmlessly to Plattsburg. The army that started from Niagara was beaten at Queenstown, with the loss of a thousand men.

Perry's Success. In 1813 another attempt was made. A young naval officer, Oliver Hazard Perry, was sent to Lake Erie to build a small fleet. Perry had great energy and worked fast in spite of the fact that he had to bring his carpenters, sailors, and tools from Philadelphia and New York, about five hundred miles away. Early in the fall he had a fleet of ten little ships, half of them built from trees just cut from the banks of the lake. The British had been building a fleet on their side of the water as well, and on September 10, 1813, the two commanders met in a fierce three-hour battle. Perry was victorious. Taking a piece of envelope, he wrote a famous message to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours. Two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

General Harrison had succeeded to Hull's command. After receiving Perry's message he moved his men across to Malden and defeated the enemy on the Thames River. Among the killed on the English side was Tecumseh, a great Indian chief who had been dangerous for many years along the Western frontier. The successes of Perry and Harrison showed that the incompetent generals were being weeded out and better ones put in their places. Among the new officers were Jacob Brown and Winfield Scott. On July 5,

[1] Hull was tried, was condemned as a coward, and was sentenced to be shot. President Madison pardoned him, however, on account of his former war record.



The War of 1812

Campaigns in the North and around Chesapeake Bay

1814, the latter met a small British army at Chippewa and won a victory. A little later Brown and Scott together held their own at Lundy's Lane against a larger enemy force.

The results of two years' fighting on the Canadian border were not decisive. The later victories somewhat made up for earlier defeats; but England was sending larger forces, which would prevent the United States from making headway in Canada, to say nothing of capturing such a stronghold as Montreal.

War on the Ocean. The War of 1812, however, was mainly a naval war. For a time the little American navy

won brilliant successes, which partly made up for failures on land. Three of the American ships — the *President*, the *Constitution*, and the *United States* — were uncommonly powerful. To the delight of the United States and the amazement of England they won several famous battles which were fought with great bravery and much skill. The most famous of these was the defeat of the *Guerrière* by the *Constitution* on August 19, 1812. Then a great deal of damage was done to British shipping by American privateers. Some of these were mere fishing vessels fitted out with a gun or two, and some were large and powerful merchantmen, big enough to meet a warship. One, the *Yankee*, was said to have captured more than $5,000,000 worth of British property. All together, there were 526 privateers, and they seized 1344 vessels.

The victories of the *Constitution* and other frigates, together with the successes of the privateers, were a source of pride to the people of the United States. The English, accustomed to victory on the seas, were startled by so many defeats; but, of course, the tiny American navy could hardly hope to win all the time against so great a navy as that of England. One by one the American vessels were driven from the seas; some were captured, and some were bottled up in the harbors by English fleets sailing about outside. By 1813 the activities of the American navy were pretty much at an end, and few vessels of any kind went in and out of the harbors until the close of the war.

The British Plan for 1814. By 1814 the war in Europe had gone against Napoleon, and English veteran troops were thus free to fight in America. A new threefold attack on the United States was planned: (1) an expedition from Canada along Burgoyne's old Lake Champlain route; (2) an attack on the cities about Chesapeake Bay; (3) a third attack in the Southwest at the mouth of the Mississippi.

The *Constitution*

A forty-four-gun man-of-war ordered sent out by Congress at the time of the threatened war with France (1798). It is now (1930) being rebuilt at the Boston Navy Yard. (From an etching by George C. Wales)

Each of these attacks had an important result. The Lake Champlain expedition in September, 1814, was turned back by the naval victory of Commodore Thomas Macdonough on the lake. Sir George Prevost, its leader, returned to Canada. To Chesapeake Bay, in August, came General Ross with four thousand British veterans. The Americans were ill prepared for an attack. They were easily defeated by the British, who then burned the Capitol, the White House, and other buildings.[1] The British then returned to their ships, and in a few days were ready for another raid, this time on

[1] The British claimed that the burning of these buildings in Washington merely evened matters up for the burning of Toronto (or York, as it was then called) by American troops in 1813. Some people claim that the burning of Washington was worse, because it was done by order of the officers, whereas the burning of York was done by private soldiers. As a matter of fact, nobody need be very proud of either act.

Baltimore. Baltimore had learned from the experience of Washington, and it was ready. The people had thrown up fortifications, put cannon in place, and gathered a considerable force of men. When the British attacked they met with a stout resistance.[1] Ross himself was killed, and the attack was given up. Again the British took to their ships and sailed out to sea, leaving Chesapeake Bay as peaceful as it had been before the war.

The third attack was at the mouth of the Mississippi. In December, 1814, a fleet carrying a great force under Generals Pakenham and Gibbs reached southern Louisiana. General Andrew Jackson, in command of the Americans, marched his men a few miles below New Orleans. He threw up defenses of earth and cotton bales and waited for Pakenham's army. On January 8, 1815, the British marched bravely but foolishly right into the face of Jackson's fire. Jackson's men, safe behind their earthworks, poured a deadly cannon and musket fire into them. Pakenham fell, Gibbs was fatally wounded, and their men went down in heaps. Jackson lost seventy-one men; the English lost over two thousand. Jackson at once became the hero of the Southwest, and the disaster at Washington was forgotten in the victory of New Orleans.

The Treaty of Ghent and the Results of the War. When Pakenham and Gibbs started their men forward they could have saved their own lives and the lives of their two thousand men if they could have telegraphed by wireless to a ship on the Atlantic Ocean.

[1] While the British were attacking Baltimore a young American named Francis Scott Key was on board an English vessel in Chesapeake Bay arranging for the exchange of American for British prisoners. Key was kept on the vessel through the night. As he looked early in the morning to see whether the city had been forced to surrender, he saw with relief that the flag was still floating over Fort McHenry. Inspired by the incident, he wrote the words of the "Star-Spangled Banner."

This ship was hurrying toward New York with the news that a treaty of peace had been signed in Ghent, in Belgium, on the day before Christmas, 1814. In that treaty England did not promise to give up impressment or to stop annoying American ships. The treaty merely declared the war at an end and made arrangements for settling a boundary dispute and a few minor difficulties. None of the reasons for fighting the war were mentioned in the treaty.[1] In spite of this, however, the war had important results:

1. *Loss of Men and Money.* It is possible that thirty thousand Americans were killed or wounded, or died of disease, or were taken prisoners. The money cost was not far from $200,000,000.

2. *Leaders Discovered.* Several men who later became leading Americans received their early training in the war. Such were William Henry Harrison, Winfield Scott, and Andrew Jackson in the army, and Henry Clay and John Quincy Adams in managing foreign affairs.

3. *National Patriotism.* The people were greatly discouraged late in the war because of the many disasters on sea and land. Then came news of the victory at New Orleans and the end of the struggle. There was tremendous rejoicing, and the people remembered the victories and forgot the defeats. They were no longer divided into a party favoring England and one favoring France, but all were now conscious of being Americans. They thought that they had the best country in the world, and turned their attention to developing the United States. They had not felt before that they were a nation; they felt it now. They

[1] In 1815 Napoleon was finally defeated and sent into exile. Europe breathed easily once more. Armies and navies were cut down. It was not necessary then to impress American seamen for the British navy, nor was neutral trade annoyed by either England or France. Hence the disputes that had caused the War of 1812 gradually disappeared.

began to study the history of the country. Some of them, in fact, became so boastful of their heroes and their victories that visitors from Europe laughed at them, with good cause.

4. *Political Effects.* There were marked effects on the two great political parties. The Federalists were disliked because they had opposed the war. The Republicans, as a result of the war, adopted many of the Federalist principles. They accepted the National Bank, they raised the tariff, and they somewhat enlarged the army and navy. Thus, while the Federalists were disappearing, the Republicans were growing stronger by taking over some of the best ideas of their opponents.

Review

1. Make a list of the states which lie wholly or in part within the Louisiana Purchase. About how many square miles did it cover? Was it a bargain?

2. Trace on a wall map the boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase, Lewis and Clark's expedition, and Pike's two expeditions. Tell the story as you point. There is a good account in L. B. Evans's *Trail Blazers.*

3. Compare and contrast the success of Jefferson's embargo policy with the nonimportation policy of the colonies before 1776. Did the embargo policy fail because it was a poor policy, or because news of England's yielding reached the United States too late?

4. Explain in a sentence or two the following: Napoleon, Admiral Nelson, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman," Embargo Act, impressment, merchantman, privateer.

5. Show on a wall map or trace on an outline map the movements in three areas during the War of 1812.

6. Make a brief outline of the story of the War of 1812 as told above. Use the following as the three main topics in your outline: Attempts to invade Canada; The War on the Ocean; The British Plans of 1814. Practice telling each section of this story until you can do the whole without the aid of the text.

7. Prepare three-minute floor talks on each of these topics: Results of the War of 1812; Reasons for the Declaration of War; Advantages of the United States at the Beginning of the War; Disadvantages of the United States at the Beginning of the War.

Projects and Enrichment

1. Good readings for a better understanding of this period: "Thomas Jefferson" and "James Madison," in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan; *The Story of Thomas Jefferson*, by Gene Stone; Great Epochs in American History, Vol. V.

2. Imagine that you were present at Jefferson's inauguration in 1801. In a brief floor talk tell how it looked to you and what you think of Jefferson's new ideas. Compare Jefferson's inauguration with Washington's.

3. Give a map talk on the Lewis and Clark expedition. The story is to be found in C. P. Herndon's *Lewis and Clark Expedition* and in W. R. Lighton's *Lewis and Clark*.

4. What was the "Hartford Convention"? Almost any of the larger histories of the United States will help to answer.

5. Choose sides and debate this question: *Resolved*, That the United States had more reason for fighting France in 1812 than for fighting England. See Edward Channing's *The Jeffersonian System*, in Volume XII of the American Nation Series, chap. xix.

6. Divide the class into two groups, and pair off into cousins living, respectively, in Boston and in Marietta, Ohio. Write each other letters, dated June 1, 1812, telling why your city feels as it does about war with England.

7. Read "The Battle between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*," in Volume II of Great Epochs in American History. After reading, tell the class the thrilling story of how Captain James Lawrence spoke his famous words "Don't give up the ship!"

8. Write a letter to your family in Kentucky telling about the campaign on Lake Erie in 1813. You will find good accounts in *The Hero of Erie*, by James Barnes, and *With Perry on Lake Erie*, by James Kaler.

3. Some Important Decisions under Monroe and Adams

James Monroe was president from 1817 to 1825. He was not a great leader like Hamilton and Jefferson; but while he was president many issues arose that troubled the country for generations. Moreover, as we shall see, one of his messages to Congress was of great and lasting importance.

Can the National Government carry on Banking? The first National Bank had come to an end in 1811, when its charter ran out. The nation was so busy with questions of impressment and Indian risings that the charter was not renewed. But after the War of 1812, because the business men wanted it, Congress chartered a second National Bank, much like the first one. At once there arose a great deal of objection. The farmers in those days did not like bankers and did not want the national government to be in the banking business. Then, many bankers who had got their charters from state governments also objected. The states allowed them to do many things, such as issuing great quantities of poor paper money. If there was a national bank, which issued better paper money, theirs would fall in value. Naturally, they objected to a bank which showed up the poor quality of their money.

A branch of the National Bank was established in Baltimore. The state of Maryland, which had chartered state banks, tried to drive this branch bank out of business. There was a lawsuit over it, which came up before the Supreme Court to decide. The question at issue was, Can the United States do a banking business in a state without that state's consent?

Marshall and the other judges decided in 1819 that Congress can pass any law which is not forbidden by the Constitution, if that law helps to carry out other powers

John Quincy Adams **James Monroe**

James Monroe (1758–1831) was another Virginian; John Quincy Adams (1767–1848) was, like his father, from Massachusetts. The Adams family has probably given more public servants to the nation than any other family. After he had been president, Adams became a representative in the House at Washington, where he fought slavery for many years. He always did what he thought was right, whether anyone agreed with him or not. Adams's portrait is by John Singleton Copley; Monroe's is by Gilbert Stuart

given in the Constitution.[1] It can therefore operate a bank if it sees fit. This question has come up in various ways many times since. But in all such cases the Supreme Court has repeated Marshall's decision of 1819; namely, that Congress must have full authority to make any laws which are necessary and proper for performing its tasks.

The Slavery Question. The second great problem that faced the country was the slavery problem. It grew out of

[1] The name of this famous case was *McCulloch* v. *Maryland*. There were other points in the decision which you will study more thoroughly in high school. Marshall's way of interpreting the Constitution is called "loose," or "broad," construction, because he believed in giving the Federal government large powers.

a difference of opinion between North and South. In the North the states had generally given up slavery; in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan it was forbidden by the Northwest Ordinance. There were fewer Negroes there than in the South. They were not profitable in the North as farm hands, and so it was easier to free them.

In the South the Revolutionary leaders, such as Washington, Jefferson, Henry, and Madison, opposed slavery. But the invention of the cotton gin, the demand for cotton in the mills of England and New England, and the spreading of cotton culture into the Mississippi Valley created a great demand for slaves. Slaves could work profitably in the cotton fields, where the labor was simpler than on a Northern farm. Many Southern people wanted to be rid of their slaves; but they asked these questions: If all these slaves are freed, what will become of them? Can they earn a living? Will they work without being forced to? Will they try to kill their former owners?

The South knew how fast the North was growing. Its greater population gave it more members in the House of Representatives; hence laws against slavery stood a good chance of passing the House. But in the Senate, where every state had two members, the South was as strong as the North. By 1818 there were twenty-two states in the Union, half free and half slave. If a law against slavery was passed in the House it could be stopped in the Senate. This is called "the balance in Congress."

The Missouri Compromise. Then came the settlement of Missouri. Missouri, being opposite the mouth of the Ohio River, seemed neither Northern nor Southern. To which side should it belong? Congress had to answer. The settlers included many slaveholders, and so in 1819 Missouri asked to be admitted as a slave state. The House of Representatives would admit it only as a free state, but the Senate

was willing to admit it with slavery. What to do about Missouri was discussed all over the country, and a great deal of bitterness was aroused. A Georgia congressman declared that the quarrel had kindled a fire which only seas of blood could put out. Jefferson said it was like a fire-alarm bell in the night. He feared that the quarrel over slavery would break out again and again. Clay thought that the Union might break up over it.

It happened that Maine, which had before been a part of Massachusetts, at this time was asking to be admitted as a separate state. A bargain, or "compromise," was therefore arranged as follows:

Missouri came in as a slave state.

Maine came in as a free state, thus keeping the balance in Congress.

An agreement was made that no more slave states should be admitted north of Missouri's southern boundary and east of the Rocky Mountains.[1]

As soon as the matter was settled, however, people poured all the faster into Missouri, taking up the land in the fertile river valleys. In the first ten years after 1820, seventy-four thousand came in, in the next ten years two hundred and forty-three thousand entered, and for many years afterwards Missouri continued to grow at a rapid rate.

The Election of 1824. Between 1820 and 1824 the people of the West began to ask for a Western president. There had now been five presidents: four from Virginia and one (John Adams) from Massachusetts. They were all highly educated and cultured men, well trained for their work. The West

[1] The southern boundary of Missouri was at 36° 30′ north latitude, and this line was to be extended to the Rocky Mountains. The mountains had been the western boundary of the United States ever since the Louisiana Purchase, in 1803. North of this line there should be no more slave states. This is the famous Missouri Compromise of 1820.

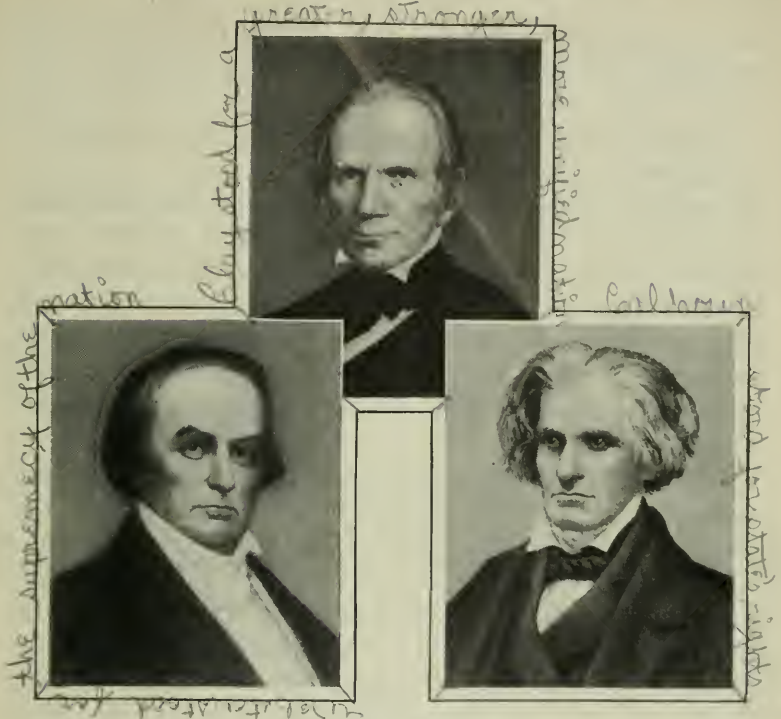
wanted someone who would represent the common people rather than the wealthy and cultured, and especially someone from the newer parts of the country. This explains why there were four candidates for president in 1824. The West brought forward Andrew Jackson, hero of New Orleans, Indian fighter, and popular frontiersman; and Henry Clay, the eloquent and constructive statesman from Kentucky. The South had William H. Crawford, who understood politics thoroughly and had been in Monroe's cabinet. New England offered John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts, son of the second president. Adams was an excellent scholar, experienced in foreign affairs, politics, and government. Each man had many friends.

When the votes were counted, it was discovered that no one man had enough to elect him president. The House of Representatives therefore chose the president from among the three men who had the most votes. These were Jackson, Adams, and Crawford. Clay was the fourth and could not be chosen, but he could influence his friends in the House of Representatives to vote as he wished.[1] About this time Crawford became so ill that it was doubtful if he could serve, and Clay therefore felt that he must choose between Jackson and Adams. He let his friends know that he favored Adams; and as his friends were strong enough to control the vote, Adams was elected.

The Westerners were not pleased to have another president from Massachusetts. Jackson believed that he had been cheated. He and his friends resolved that Jackson should be elected in 1828, and for four years they fought everything that Adams did.

Adams as President. Adams was president from 1825 to 1829. Little was done during these years. In the first place,

[1] The Constitution says that when no one has enough votes to win an election, the House must choose from the three who have the largest number of votes.



The Great Triumvirate

Intelligent citizens of the thirties and forties liked to call these three statesmen — Daniel Webster (1782–1852), Henry Clay (above) (1777–1852), and John C. Calhoun (1782–1850) — the Great Triumvirate. The phrase had reference to three famous men in Roman history; you may like to look these up and see whether you think the name appropriate. (Calhoun stood for states' rights, Webster for the supremacy of the Union, and Clay for a greater, stronger, more unified nation.) From the War of 1812 to Calhoun's death, these men, with Andrew Jackson, had more influence than any other group. Webster's portrait by John Pope is treasured at Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire; Clay's and Calhoun's pictures are from daguerreotypes or engravings

Adams and Congress could not agree. *Adams wished to build more roads and canals* over all the country, but he could not get the consent of Congress. Some thought that the Constitution did not permit such a program; others thought that the cost would be too great. The Eastern states in

many cases were already standing the cost of building their own roads and canals and did not wish to pay for any more. Hence nothing came of the project to have roads and canals built on a nation-wide scale by the Federal government.

Another cause of trouble was the question Who shall have the government jobs? Adams thought that the best men should be appointed to offices in Washington whether they were his friends or his enemies. He kept in office men who were secretly working to prevent his being a successful president. The friends of Jackson in reality wished to have Adams fail so that the people would elect their man president in 1828.

Jackson and 1828. When 1828 came round, the state legislatures of the West began nominating Jackson, and the state legislatures of New England began nominating Adams. Each of the candidates was charged by his enemies with being an extremely wicked person. When the vote was taken in November, 1828, it was found that the whole South and West were for Jackson, and of course he was elected. There was great rejoicing, and the West was satisfied that now things would go right. Instead of an aristocratic Washington politician, they said, a plain man of the people would now handle the reins of government.

Review and Projects

1. On an outline map of the United States show the free and slave states in 1821, the line of 36° 30′ north latitude, and the territory made free by the Missouri Compromise. Show also who owned the territory of the present continental United States not included in what you have indicated.

2. Take the side of a Northerner in 1821 and speak against the extension of slavery; or, if you prefer, take the side of a Southerner and speak for the extension of slavery.

3. Show what is meant by "the balance in Congress" and the effect of this balance on legislation for or against the extension of slavery.

4. Explain (1) why the first National Bank was established, (2) why it was not renewed in 1811, (3) why the second National Bank was established, and (4) why the Supreme Court allowed the second National Bank to stand in 1819.

5. Make a table of the presidents before 1829. Show the home state of each, the time covered by the administration of each, the party to which each belonged, and three outstanding events in each administration. (See Appendix C.)

6. In 1824 there were three well-marked sections in the United States: the East, the West, and the South. Compare and contrast these sections as to the extent of territory, attitude toward slavery, desires regarding a tariff, and general manner of living.

7. We sometimes hear the expression "Jacksonian democracy." Explain its meaning.

Projects and Enrichment

1. The *McCulloch* v. *Maryland* decision allowed the United States to carry on its banking business as long as the charter lasted. How many businesses can you think of that the government now conducts?

2. On page 185 the early presidents are said to have been "well trained for their work." What was this training in each case? What training do people now consider necessary for a president? How was the present president trained for his position?

3. What was the "Virginia dynasty"? Find from the dictionary the meaning of dynasty. What have you learned in topic 3 about where the presidents came from?

4. In what case was the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution put into practice?

5. Note from your table of presidents that the president and the vice president never have come from the same state. Explain this fact.

6. Make a three-minute speech telling which one of the four candidates you would have supported in 1824.

7. Read what James Morgan says of John Quincy Adams in *Our Presidents*, pp. 47–56, and give a short talk on "A Modern Judgment of John Quincy Adams."

4. The Long "Reign of King Andrew the First"

Andrew Jackson, unlike the presidents before him, was not a highly trained and cultured man. But he had many fine qualities of mind and heart. He had, above all, dauntless courage and utter honesty, and these qualities brought him the love and loyalty of the frontier. "Old Hickory," the pioneers called him; and they would follow him against the English, the Spanish, the Indians, or even against the hated politicians of the East. When they succeeded in electing him in 1828, they felt that their day had come. They had in the White House a man after their own heart.

On his part Jackson did not feel the need of Jefferson's breadth of view or John Quincy Adams's diplomatic training. He trusted his own judgment, and thought he was always right. Because he was so sure of himself he carried things with a high hand when he was president, and so people since his day often speak of the years 1829–1841 as the "reign of King Andrew the First."

Disposing of the Indians. The Eastern men who had been managing affairs had tried to be just to the Indians. They never took land away from them for white settlement without paying for it and giving a written agreement. They considered the Indian tribes free foreign nations, and Justice Marshall protected their rights in the Supreme Court. But Jackson was a frontiersman, and, like many men who had had to fight Indians, he hated them heartily. He thought that the sooner they were moved away, the better.

The question came up about 1830, when the state of Georgia wanted to force the Creeks and Cherokees out of their lands, which were located within her borders. Many people in the East thought that the Indians should be allowed to stay where they were, since they had a treaty saying that they owned that land and did not want to sell. But Jackson's Western and Southern followers in Congress passed a law saying that the Indians must leave their lands and go west of the Mississippi to some land that no white people wanted as yet.[1] A tract of land in the present state of Oklahoma was set aside for them and called the Indian Territory. After that, when white men wanted land held by the Indians, they could usually arrange to have the Indians moved to some Indian reservation and take the land for themselves.

General Andrew Jackson

Born in 1767, near the boundary between North and South Carolina, Jackson died at his country estate, the Hermitage, at Nashville, Tennessee, in 1845. His family was poor, and Jackson had a hard struggle. This made him sympathetic with many unfortunate people later on, provided they were white. He became a lawyer and a judge, and was noted for just rather than legal decisions. His victory over Indians and in the battle of New Orleans made him a national figure. He loved his friends and hated his enemies. He was sometimes guilty of very bad judgment in government matters, but was always sincere and honest. The portrait, by Thomas Sully, hangs in the Corcoran Art Gallery, Washington. (Copyright by Detroit Publishing Company)

The Tariff. One of the greatest conflicts in Jackson's day was over the tariff laws. This tax on foreign goods had been growing higher and higher since 1816. American manu-

[1] See Progressive Map VI.

factures increased with this encouragement, and the Northern states, which had many factories, were well pleased with the arrangement, for it brought them prosperity. But the case of the South was different. The South produced cotton, tobacco, and sugar, but it bought its manufactured goods in the North or from Europe. The tariff laws did not increase the price of its products, but they did increase the price of what it had to buy. Southern representatives tried to persuade Congress to lower the tariff, but it was of no use. Even President Jackson seemed to favor a high tariff. The tariff helped the North, and the North wanted it; it hurt the South, and the South hated it. South Carolina, especially, felt injured by the continual passage of protective tariffs in 1816, 1824, 1828, and 1832. The Southerners were now in a difficult position:

They believed that the high tariff was injuring them and benefiting only the North.

They wanted a lower tariff but could not get it.

What would they do when both Congress and the President insisted on a high tariff?

Nullification. At that time the greatest statesman in the South was John C. Calhoun, and he gave an answer to the question. He said that when the national government was unjust to a state, the state had the right to nullify (that is, refuse to obey) the unjust law. Calhoun was then vice president and therefore could not argue in Congress, but Robert Y. Hayne of South Carolina set forth his ideas in the famous Webster-Hayne debate of 1830. Daniel Webster of Massachusetts replied to Hayne for the North. He said that if the states could do as they pleased about obeying the national laws, then some states would obey and some would not, and the result would be that the Union would fall apart. He said that when the Constitution was made, it was seen that some day this very question

would come up. For that reason the Supreme Court had been established. If the court said that a law was constitutional, then *all states* must obey, even if the law hurt them; if the court said the law was unconstitutional, then *no state* need obey. But no state could set itself up as a judge of national laws.

The South Carolinians felt very keenly that they were being hurt, and they decided to do something about it. In 1832 they elected a special convention which came to these conclusions: that the tariff law was contrary to the Constitution, that South Carolina would nullify it, and that if the national government tried to collect the tariff in South Carolina ports the state would leave the Union.

Then everyone waited to see what Jackson would do. He soon told them. He said that the Federal Union must be preserved, and notified South Carolina that the national laws would be enforced. He planned to send troops to Charleston.

In the meantime Congress, led by Henry Clay, passed two laws: one, known as the Force Act, gave the president power to put down resistance to Federal laws; the other was a new tariff act which was to lower the rates by a small amount each year for ten years, and after that time they would remain without change. The South Carolina people were satisfied with the lower tariff and gave up all idea of nullification.

The Bank Question. The third important conflict in Jackson's time was over the United States Bank. The question at issue was Ought the United States to continue to have a big central bank with branches in the chief cities? The second National Bank, chartered in 1816, would come to an end in 1836. Should it be rechartered?

Most of the Western people disliked the bank. They thought its profits were too large. It would not lend them

money on the terms they wanted. Some states which wanted to control the banking business themselves said it was unconstitutional, although we have seen that the Supreme Court had said otherwise. Besides all this, Jackson thought the officers had opposed him and did not want him to be president. In 1832 there was to be a presidential election. Jackson let it be known that he opposed the bank by vetoing a bill to recharter it. Henry Clay said that he was in favor of it. Thereupon Jackson's friends all over the country rallied to his support, calling themselves Democrats. The admirers of Clay and the bank supported him and began to take the name of Whigs. In the election Jackson was victorious.

As soon as Jackson was reëlected and found that the majority of the people agreed with him, he refused to deposit any more funds in the United States Bank. Whatever money was already there was gradually drawn out. The bank came to an end in 1836.

After a short time the government set up several "subtreasuries" of its own in important places. In these buildings was stored the money of the government, to be paid out whenever it was needed. Four of them were in use until 1920, and the rest (five), until 1921.

In this, as in most things, Jackson had his way. He wanted to put his friends into government offices, and he did it. He wanted to be rid of the Indians and of the National Bank, and his followers supported him. Even after two terms as president he still wanted to have a hand in the government. He did not ask for a third term, but told his followers to elect his friend Martin Van Buren of New York as his successor; and this the Democrats did, for their loyalty to Jackson was boundless.

The Panic of 1837. Poor Martin Van Buren, however, had small joy of his office. While Jackson had "reigned"

the country had been very prosperous. The mills were busy; the farmers had good crops. Everything was "on the boom." But in 1837 there came a sudden change: (1) crops were poor in 1835, and this brought about distress in the country; (2) a big fire in New York burned up $20,000,000 worth of property; (3) business was bad in Europe, and merchants there began to ask for the money that American merchants owed them; (4) American business men had been buying too much land and other things with borrowed money, or with bad paper money from ill-run banks. All these things brought on a "panic" in 1837. Factories and mills shut down, and men were out of work. Farmers scarcely had food enough to feed their families. Many people were put into prison because they could not pay their bills. Banks closed; merchants failed. For a number of years there was great suffering.

Martin Van Buren

Martin Van Buren (1782–1862) belonged to a Dutch family of New York. He was nominated for vice president in 1832, at the first national convention of the Democratic party, and elected with Jackson. He was called the "Little Magician" in his own day. He was a wise president in a difficult time. The portrait hangs in the Capitol at Washington

All this was not Van Buren's fault, but the people blamed him for it. They thought that the president was to be blamed if things went wrong, or thanked if all were well. The enemies of Jackson and Van Buren saw their chance. They told the people that it was the bad policies of the Democrats that had made all the trouble. The people therefore

turned for relief to the Whigs; and in 1840 they elected old General William Henry Harrison of Indiana, with John Tyler of Virginia as the vice president.

Review

1. Explain what is meant by "nullification." Show that the idea was not a new one in 1832.

2. List five important things that Jackson did during his administration.

3. For a class exercise let one pupil represent a New England manufacturer, another a New England shipowner, another a Southern cotton-grower, another a Pennsylvania farmer, and another a Western farmer; let each state his position on the tariff and give reasons.

4. In 1840 the Whigs were in favor of internal improvements at the expense of the national government, of a high tariff, and a United States Bank. The Democrats wanted free trade, internal improvements at the expense of the state in which they were made, and an independent treasury. Knowing these facts, make a speech for or against the election of Van Buren in 1840.

5. Explain and illustrate the strange-sounding heading on page 190.

Projects and Enrichment

1. On what common ground did William Penn and John Marshall stand with regard to the Indians?

2. Tell the class the story of the Trail of Tears. Read *A Century of Dishonor*, by Helen Hunt Jackson, chap. vii.

3. Do you know in what document Calhoun found or might have found his doctrine of nullification? See Unit I, under "The Overthrow of the Federalists," for a clue.

4. Read aloud some of the famous passages in Webster's 1830 speech on the Union. It has been said that this speech later won the Civil War. Can you see why? See "The Webster-Hayne Debate," in Volume VI of Great Epochs in American History.

5. Why did Jackson have Van Buren elected in 1836?

UNIT III. HOW WHIGS AND DEMOCRATS SHAPED THE NATION

The Democrats, Jeffersonian and Jacksonian, had controlled the nation for forty years, since 1800. There now came twenty years (1840–1860) in which sometimes Whigs and sometimes Democrats had their way, as the list of presidents shows. Both decades were crowded with important events and decisions, but the issues were different. The forties were busy with questions of expansion, but in the fifties all other issues gave way to slavery. This unit will show why expansion was the great question of the forties.

1. The Days of Expansion

President Harrison was an old man, and he died soon after taking office. His successor, John Tyler, was soon in a bitter quarrel with the party that had elected him. The Whig leaders wished to start the bank again, and Tyler opposed it. Thereafter the Whigs and Tyler had nothing to do with each other. Even the cabinet members quarreled with the President.

The Boundary of Maine. Only Webster, Tyler's Secretary of State, remained in the cabinet; all the others resigned. Webster had a good reason for staying, for he was trying to find out just where the northern boundary of Maine lay. In 1783 the treaty which closed the Revolution had said that the boundary was to begin where the "St. Croix" River entered the Atlantic. Since there were several rivers in that neighborhood called the St. Croix, nobody knew just which one was meant.

At this point England sent a very sensible man named Lord Ashburton to talk the matter over with Webster. The result of their discussion was an agreement called the

John Tyler William Henry Harrison 1841

President Harrison was another Virginia-born magistrate. He was born in 1773 and died in the White House in 1841. He graduated from Hampden-Sidney College and studied medicine, gained a great reputation in the War of 1812, and later retired to his farm in Indiana. Because he was later called to the presidency, the people of his time called him Cincinnatus. His grandson became president in 1889. John Tyler (1790–1862) was still another Virginian. Like Jefferson and Monroe, he went to the College of William and Mary. It is said that he was playing a game with his children when a messenger came to tell him that he was president. Like many other men, he is more honored by later judgment than by the people of his own time

Webster-Ashburton Treaty, signed in 1842. It gave part of the disputed land to England and part to the United States. There has never been any serious trouble about the Maine boundary since.

Westward Ho! In 1840 a half-century had passed since Washington became president. In that fifty years the people had pushed across the Alleghenies and to the Mississippi. They had even crossed it and established the states of Louisiana (1812), Missouri (1821), and Arkansas (1836) on the western slope of the great valley. The changing frontier lines which appear on the maps (following pages 171, 201, 293) tell the story of westward settlement. Some of the pioneers

Roads and Canals before 1830

went west through New York to Buffalo, and on by the Great Lakes. Some went to Pittsburgh by wagon, and then down the Ohio. Some went by the Wilderness Road, through Cumberland Gap. When the land of the Southern planters gave out they went west along the level road that passed through Augusta, Montgomery, and Natchez. The stream became larger and larger after the War of 1812. From 1830 to 1860 there was still more increase. During those years about four million people went into the Middle West — to Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi did not grow so fast, but each was

taking care of about half a million people. There were two reasons for the great increase in population in both East and West: the great flood of immigration from the British Isles and Germany and the large families that were common in those days. Hence the Eastern states were able to send settlers to the West and to increase their own numbers at the same time.

The Far West. In 1844 the western boundary remained as the map for 1830 shows it — an irregular line from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada. Between 1844 and 1850 a series of stirring events brought the land of the United States to the Pacific Ocean. It happened in this way:

Between the Pacific Ocean and the boundary of the United States in 1844 lay an enormous stretch of land. To its north lay Canada; to its south, Mexico. This stretch of land was composed of high mountains and deep valleys; it contained huge rivers, and the largest trees in the world; it had an inland lake of salt water; it was covered with dense forests filled with wild beasts. Its area was stupendous, about one and a quarter million square miles. This is enough land to make twenty-four countries of the size of England.

The southern half of this huge area was claimed by Mexico, and many Mexicans were already living in what are now California, New Mexico, and Texas. The northern part was claimed by both Great Britain and the United States. This "Oregon country," as it was called, had been explored first by Mackenzie, a Canadian, in 1793, and then by the Lewis and Clark expedition in 1804–1806. Captain Gray had discovered the Columbia River in 1792.

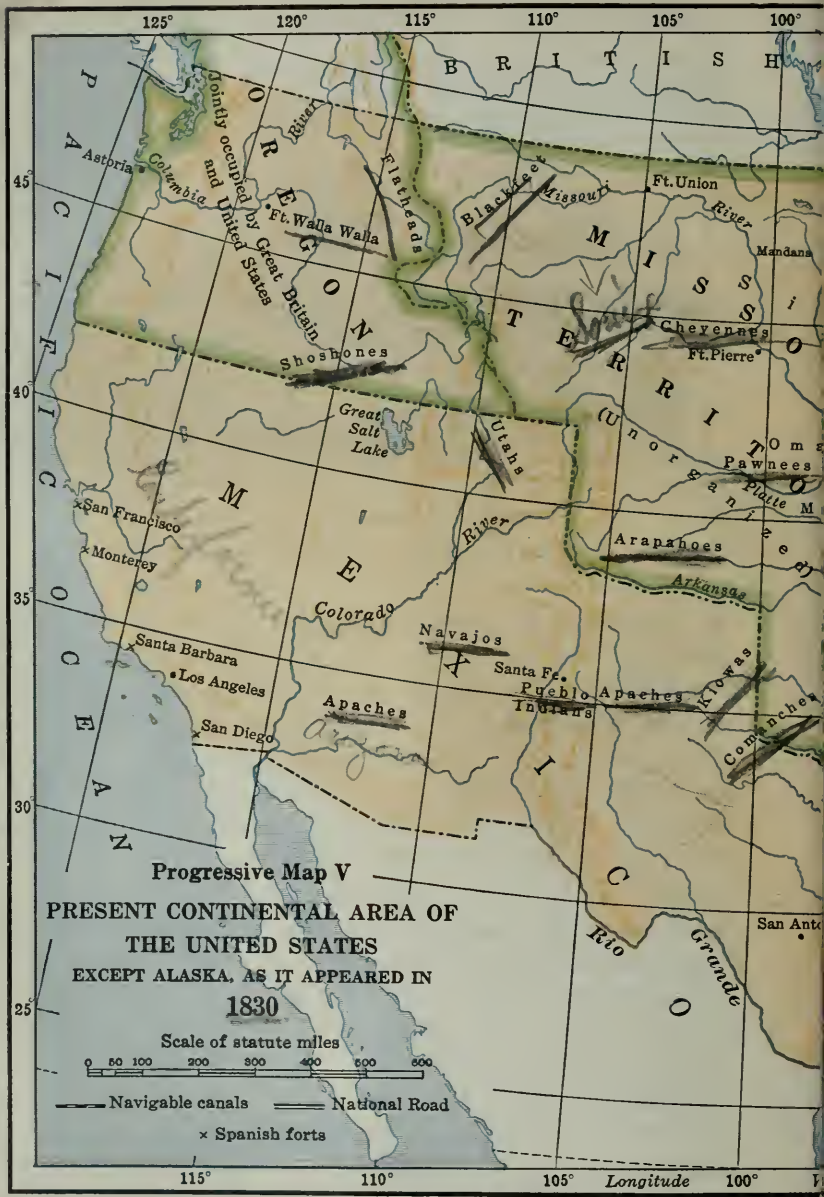
After 1806, and especially after the War of 1812, Americans began to venture out into Oregon. They found English fur-traders, who had come down from Canada, already at work there. The Americans began to compete with them. The great purpose was to get furs, especially the beaver, for

Fort Dearborn (Chicago) in 1816

From a print owned by the Chicago Historical Society

the markets of St. Louis and London. After the fur-traders had found the way, settlers from the East began to go to Oregon, most of them by the "Oregon Trail." Groups of settlers, missionaries who wished to teach the Indians, and adventurers of all sorts made up the parties. A thousand went in the year 1843. Forts, such as that at Walla Walla, were built, farms were planted, and homes were established.

It is possible for us to imagine fairly well the passage of the early settlers over the two-thousand-mile trail to Oregon. There would be a few wagons for the women and children to ride in and to carry the food; the men would ride on horseback or walk. As many people as possible would go together for protection. Starting out from Independence, Missouri, the band would go northwest to the Platte River; then up the Platte valley for several hundred miles, watching at night for Indians, who might pounce upon the expedition and kill the people and capture the horses and supplies. Sometimes thunderstorms would drench them; sometimes



Map Plate, Patented July 6, 1921 • Method of Making Maps, Patented July 6, 1921

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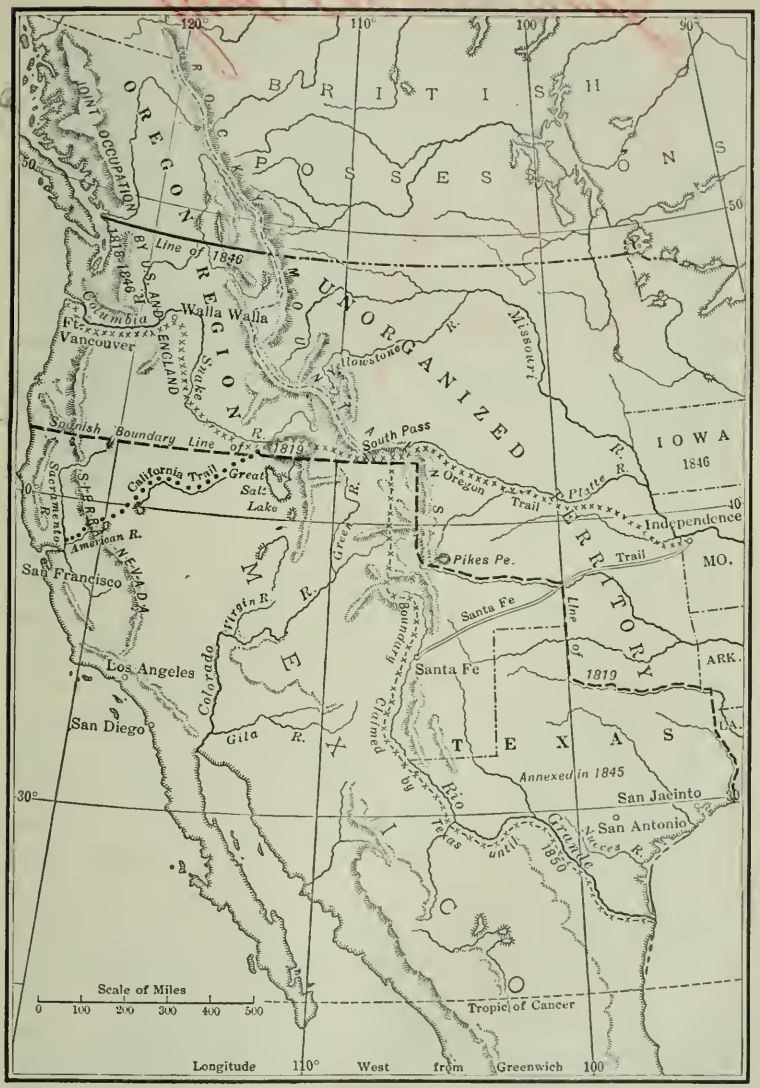
the dust and the heat would overcome them, for there are few trees and no shady forests on the plains about the Platte. At last they would reach the Sweetwater branch of the Platte and go through the South Pass over the mountains; then down to the Snake valley; then hundreds of miles where thirst was to be dreaded, where many starved because food was getting low, and where the ever-present Indian was to be feared. Such a journey can now be made comfortably in a few days; then it took four or five months.

The Ownership of Oregon. The migration of so many settlers brought up a serious question. Who owned Oregon? The United States claimed it because (1) Captain Gray, an American, had sailed along the Pacific coast and discovered Oregon in 1792; (2) Lewis and Clark had explored it; (3) fur-traders, missionaries, and settlers were actually occupying it.

Great Britain, however, made similar claims. Who should decide? For a time the two countries agreed to let people from either country go in and settle. Then there came disputes, because colonists from each country wished to get the most fertile lands. In 1844 there was a presidential election. James K. Polk, a Democrat, was chosen president, and some of his friends wished to make England give us all the Oregon country or have war about it. The name "Oregon" was then applied to the entire country from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, running from the 42d parallel of north latitude to latitude 54° 40′. Some people of the Northwest were so anxious to have the whole territory that their cry was "Fifty-four forty or fight."

A wiser course, however, was finally followed. The boundary between Canada and the United States toward the east was the 49th parallel of north latitude. This line was extended to the Pacific Ocean in 1846. England, acting for Canada, took what was north of the line; we took what was



Oregon and Texas

south. This agreement gave the United States two hundred and eighty-seven thousand square miles of land.

The Santa Fe Trail. While settlers were migrating to the Northwest and laying out farms in fertile Oregon, traders were going to the Southwest over the Santa Fe Trail. This trail led from western Missouri across what are now Kansas and New Mexico to the Spanish town of Santa Fe. The men who went over the hot, dry, treeless plains seven hundred miles to Santa Fe were not settlers: they were traders. They took American goods; they came back with wool, blankets, silver, and gold. For some time the trade averaged $130,000 a year. Some Americans began to wish they owned the land about Santa Fe.

The Settlement of Texas. During these years other Americans were going to the country now known as Texas. It was a part of Mexico, and Mexico at first belonged to Spain. In 1821, however, Mexico revolted and became independent. Texas was a huge country, more than thirty times the size of Massachusetts. Hence there was plenty of cheap land, and Americans began going there even when it belonged to Spain. Moses Austin, a Connecticut Yankee, went with his son Stephen and persuaded others to go also. By 1840 Texas contained perhaps fifty-five thousand people, most of them from Kentucky and Tennessee. This was not a large number for so large an area, but it showed what might happen in the future.

Bringing Texas into the Union. The Texans were not happy as a part of Mexico. Most of them were slaveholders, and the Constitution of Mexico forbade slavery. Then Mexico passed a law forbidding Americans to go to Texas. The Texans were angry, and at last decided to revolt from Mexico. Under General Sam Houston, a famous fighter from Tennessee, Texas became free in 1836. She adopted a government much like that of the United States.

James K. Polk Sam Houston

The two men who, more than any others, brought Texas into the Union. Texas still celebrates April 21 as a holiday. It is the anniversary of the battle of San Jacinto, when Sam Houston led the Texans to victory. President Polk (1795–1849) was a native of North Carolina and a graduate of the University of North Carolina, but he went to Tennessee when he was a young man

As soon as Texas was free she wanted to become a state in the Union and told the officers at Washington of her wish. This was at the time when the Oregon question was before the people. If Oregon was to be annexed, why not Texas? Most of the people liked the idea of a big country. Why not make it still bigger by annexing a tremendous area of new land like Texas?

It is at this point that the slavery quarrel has to be remembered (see page 183). The North was willing to annex more *free territories* and *free states*, but what might be the result of adding a slave territory thirty times as large as Massachusetts? If Texas should be admitted to the Union, might it not be divided into several slave states? Might not these new states outvote the free states in Congress? If this happened, the whole country might be opened to

The Alamo, the Scene of a Famous Battle in the Texan War for Independence

The Alamo was an old mission building in which three thousand Mexicans came upon a hundred and eighty Texans during their war for independence. The Texans fought the Mexicans for more than a week, but in spite of their brave defense they were killed off one by one until only a few women and children were left. Among the dead were David Crockett, a famous frontier fighter, and James Bowie, the inventor of the bowie knife. "Remember the Alamo!" then became the battle cry of the Texans until they won their freedom from Mexico. The Alamo still stands, and boasts that it has stood under six flags. Can you name them? See Amelia E. Barr's *Remember the Alamo*, Roosevelt and Lodge's *Hero Tales*, pp. 173–181, or M. E. M. Davis's *Under Six Flags: the Story of Texas*

slaves and slaveholders. When the people of the North thought of these things, they were not so pleased with the plan to annex Texas.

Whether to take Texas or not was debated for several years. Then came the election of 1844, which has already been mentioned (see page 202). The Whigs nominated Henry Clay, who did not seem sure whether he wanted to annex Texas or leave it alone. Polk, the Democratic candidate, proposed to *annex both Texas and Oregon.* This plan pleased

the Northerners, who wished to add Oregon; it pleased the Southerners, who wanted Texas; and it delighted all those people who wished to have a big country and who wanted all the territory they could get.

Polk was successful in the election. The very next year (1845) Congress voted to annex Texas.

Review

1. Below is given the population of certain states in the years 1830 and 1860. Make a bar diagram to illustrate the increase in each state. For an example of a bar diagram see page 379.

State	Population in 1830	Population in 1860
1. Massachusetts	610,408	1,231,066
2. New York	1,918,608	3,880,735
3. Pennsylvania	1,348,233	2,906,215
4. Arkansas	30,388	435,450
5. Michigan	31,639	749,113
6. Florida	34,730	140,424

2. Fix in your mind the location of the following: Rocky Mountains, Green River, Snake River, Great Salt Lake, Platte River, South Pass, the Sweetwater, Yellowstone, Virgin, and Colorado rivers, San Diego, Walla Walla, Fort Vancouver, Columbia River, Santa Fe, Cimarron River.

3. Without referring to a map in the book, locate on an outline map of the western United States each item mentioned above. Trace on this map the Oregon Trail and the Santa Fe trail.

Projects and Enrichment

1. Did you ever hear of the Aroostook War? It was very fierce while it lasted. Read about it in *Westward Extension*, Volume XVII of the American Nation Series, chap. v, p. 80, and tell the class the story.

2. After reading "The Fur Traders" in Grace R. Hebard's *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, chap. ii, explain why the fur trade played so great a part in the Northwest.

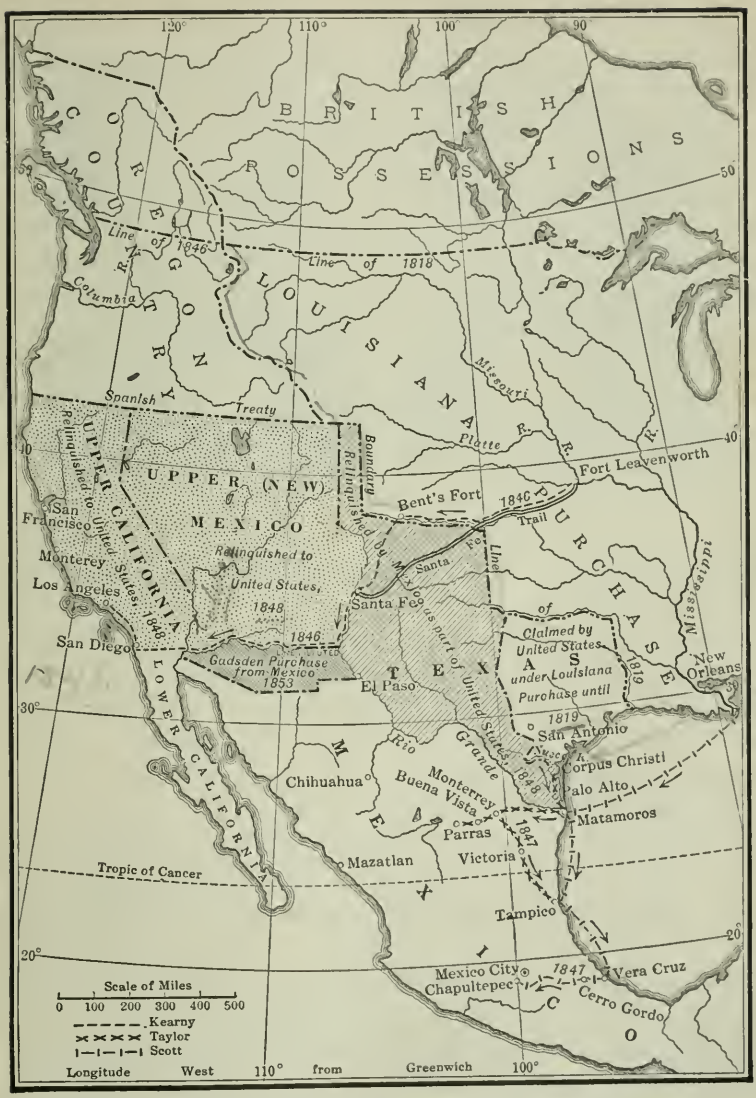
3. The Grand Old Man of the Northwest was Ezra Meeker. Read his *Ox-Team Days on the Oregon Trail*, and report some of the good stories in it.

4. When the Austins asked the Mexican government for land for their settlers, Mexico gave *seven square miles to each head of a family*. Determine how many acres of land this meant per family. Is there any Texan city named for the Austins?

5. Readings for a wider knowledge of this period: James Morgan's *Our Presidents*, for the presidents of the time; "The Great Trails," in *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, chap. iii; *The Making of America*, by Grace Vollintine, chap. xvi; "A Pioneer Boyhood," in *The Westward Movement* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 88–102; *Kit Carson*, by John S. C. Abbott; and *Sam Houston*, by G. S. Bryan.

2. The Mexican War

How the Mexican War Began. The annexation of Texas was the beginning of much trouble, for the United States fell heir to a knotty problem when she added Texas to the states. Where did Texas begin and end? Mexico said that the southern boundary of Texas was the Nueces River; Texas claimed that it was the Rio Grande (see map on page 209). In these days a joint commission would be appointed to examine papers, maps, and records to find out the exact facts. But in the "roaring forties" it seemed to be a matter of whose claim could be supported by the most soldiers and the biggest guns. President Polk sent General Zachary Taylor with American troops clear down to the Rio Grande, to the farthest edge of the disputed ground between the two rivers. A fight resulted between Mexican and American troops. President Polk then sent a message to Congress saying that the Mexican soldiers had invaded American territory and killed American soldiers on American soil. He asked Congress to declare war on Mexico, and this was done on May 12, 1846.



Campaigns of the Mexican War

The Three Campaigns of the Mexican War. The war was composed of three main campaigns, with a few smaller ones that do not require mention. The first was directed toward the Mexican settlements in what is now New Mexico, Arizona, and California. This territory, together with Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming, was then in northern Mexico. Shortly after war was declared President Polk sent Colonel Stephen W. Kearny with a few hundred soldiers along the Santa Fe Trail. Kearny took Santa Fe without a fight, and then with a few men started for the scanty white settlements in California (there were a few people at San Diego, a few at Los Angeles, and a very few at San Francisco). Before Kearny had completed the long, hard trip to California, he had news that the province had already been seized for the United States. Two naval commanders were there, and a group of explorers under John C. Frémont. These officers had taken over the settlements and raised the American flag.

The scene of the second campaign was in northern Mexico. General Taylor with a few thousand troops was on the Rio Grande when Congress declared war, and he at once marched into northern Mexico. He fought a number of battles, winning every one.

The third and final campaign had for its purpose the capture of Mexico City, two hundred and fifty miles from the coast. Since it was the capital, its capture might bring the war to an end. General Winfield S. Scott, a veteran of the War of 1812, was chosen leader. He landed at Vera Cruz with about twelve thousand men in March, 1847, and started toward the capital. He was opposed at every step. The Mexicans fought in the mountain passes, and when they were defeated they fell back to the next good position. But Scott won every battle, and on September 14, 1847, he entered the city. Mexico had to agree to end the war.

Zachary Taylor Millard Fillmore

Zachary Taylor, born in Virginia in 1784, was one of the most beloved of military men. During his long army service he earned the admiration of soldiers and citizens alike by his faithfulness and personal virtues. He bought a large cotton plantation in Louisiana, but although he owned slaves he could see the Northern point of view on slavery. Millard Fillmore (1800–1874) was a New Yorker. One of his acts as president was to send a warship to Turkey to bring the exiled Kossuth to America for a visit and for great honors. Both portraits are from old prints or engravings

What did the United States Gain? The treaty of peace said (1) that the Rio Grande should be the boundary between Texas and Mexico, and (2) that the United States should have the territory of upper New Mexico and Upper California, as shown on the map, p. 209. The price paid was $15,000,000.[1]

With this huge and rich territory, the United States gained also the lasting ill will of Mexico and of most of Latin America as well. These countries felt that the war had been

[1] In 1853 the United States bought 29,670 square miles of land from Mexico for $10,000,000. This is known as the Gadsden Purchase, from the name of the man who acted for the United States. The land was added to Arizona and New Mexico.

unjustly begun, and that the United States was a bully to fight a smaller and weaker country and then take from her so rich an empire in land. Many people in the United States itself felt that the war was an unjust one and were ashamed of it.

General Zachary Taylor was greatly admired for his Mexican campaign, and since he was so popular the Whigs nominated and elected him president in 1848. He died after being president a little over a year, and was succeeded by the vice president, Millard Fillmore. In 1852 the Democrats were successful in electing their candidate, Franklin Pierce. In the next division we shall see what happened in the fifties.

3. California and the Compromise of 1850

In 1848 a workman named James W. Marshall found a yellow "stone" in the mill race of Sutter's Mill, near the Sacramento River, which proved to be gold. Other pieces were found, and stories of gold in California began to fly about the world like fire in dry grass. There were rumors that fabulous amounts of gold were lying about merely waiting for someone to pick them up. The rush to California began. Shiploads of excited men left every Eastern port, going around Cape Horn or by the Isthmus of Panama, where the men made their way across the mountains and took ship for San Francisco. Other thousands went overland — all of them doomed to suffer from heat and cold and hunger, and many of them to leave their bones on the wide plains or among the Rocky Mountains.[1] Once in California,

[1] The dangers faced by the "forty-niners" — the men who rushed to California in 1849 — may be illustrated by the adventures of the Donner party. Just before gold was discovered, a group of immigrants left for California over the plains. It was led by two men named Donner. All went well until they reached the present boundary of Nevada and California. There, although it was only October, they found snow. The drifts were so deep that progress was almost impossible. The animals which they had brought with

everyone scrambled for the gold diggings. Men from England, from China, from Australia, mingled with the Americans. Many of them were rough, lawless people. Fights and bloodshed were frequent; but at last a governor was sent out from Washington to take control. Law and order then began to be maintained.

The Compromise of 1850. The gold rush brought so many people to California that it could apply at once for admission as a state. At that time there were fifteen free states and fifteen slave states in the Union. Washington was seething with political questions brought on by the Mexican War and the new territory that had been gained. The Northern people, who disliked slavery and wanted it ended, demanded that California should come in as a free state, that the new territory should be made free, like the old Northwest Territory, and that slavery should be ended in the District of Columbia. The statesmen from the slave states demanded that the new Southwest should at least be open to slavery if the climate were suitable, that slavery be allowed in the capital, and that a new and sterner law should be enacted to make Northerners return runaway slaves.

During the excitement at Washington, Henry Clay, the great peacemaker, suggested a compromise that would give something to each side.

California was to come in as a free state, since the people there wanted to be free. (This would please the North.)

The Mexican cession was to be divided into two great territories, Utah and New Mexico. The question of slavery was to be left for the people there to decide. (This avoided the danger of trying to settle the question in Congress.)

them — mules and cattle — were killed and eaten. Enough shelters were built; but more snow came, and at length all food was gone. Finally a few of the party managed to get through to settlements and bring back relief. Almost half the party, however, had died of their sufferings.

A law was to be passed forcing the people of the North to return runaway slaves. (This would please the South.)

Buying and selling slaves, but not slavery itself, was to be stopped in the District of Columbia. (This would please the North.)

There was a long and bitter debate in the Senate over Clay's four proposals, but in the end they were all passed. The country breathed a sigh of relief, for at last the slavery question seemed settled. All the states and territories save Utah and New Mexico were either free or slave, and the people of these two were to settle the question for themselves. Could anything possibly raise the slavery question again?

Review

1. *Resolved*, That the Mexican War was justifiable. Defend or deny this statement in a three-minute floor talk.

2. *Resolved*, That the South was more favored than the North in the Compromise of 1850. Defend or deny this statement in a brief floor talk.

3. Write a statement of approximately two hundred and fifty words about each of the following: Henry Clay, Andrew Jackson, John C. Calhoun, Daniel Webster. Read accounts of Clay, Calhoun, and Webster in L. B. Evans's *America First*, and James Morgan's account of Jackson in *Our Presidents*.

4. Give a map talk in which you describe the three campaigns of the Mexican War.

Projects and Enrichment

1. Find and read material on this period in the Day-by-Day Reference Library; also in *America First*, by L. B. Evans, and *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks. James Morgan's treatment of Polk in *Our Presidents* is interesting. *The Boy Forty-niners*, by Everett McNeil, and *The Golden Days of '49*, by Kirk Munroe, tell about the diggings.

The United States, showing the Frontier Line of 1830

2. Why is California called the Bear State? See *Fighting with Frémont* by Everett McNeil.

3. The Mexican War was a training school for the Civil War. List in your notebooks all the officers you can find in your reading about this war, and later check those who were important in 1861–1865.

4. In his *Biglow Papers* (which can be had from any large library) James Russell Lowell tells how a Yankee farmer felt about the events of the forties, and especially the Mexican War. Read some of the best stanzas to the class.

5. Chapultepec enters into the story of the Mexican War. What is Chapultepec, and who lives there now? See "The Storming of Chapultepec," in Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History.

6. The story of John Jacob Astor and Astoria is a thrilling romance of business, which leaps the continent from New York to Oregon. How was it connected with China? Read *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard.

7. The state of Deseret existed for about two years during this period. When? Can you find it? What is its name now? See *The History of Utah*, by H. H. Bancroft, chap. xvii.

UNIT IV. HOW OUTSIDE COUNTRIES SHAPED THE NATION

Although as a rule busy Americans thought very little about outside countries, still those countries helped to make American life and ideas. We have seen how Napoleon's career in Europe led to the Louisiana Purchase and the War of 1812, both of which had so many important effects for America. When Spain in 1796 allowed the Western farmers to carry their crops to New Orleans to sell, prosperity came to Kentucky and Tennessee. When England agreed in 1817 not to have rival navies on the Great Lakes, life at once became safer and happier in the Old Northwest.[1]

[1] In 1917 Canada and the United States celebrated a hundred years of peaceful, neighborly sharing of the Great Lakes.

1. The Making of Commercial Treaties

When two nations want to exchange their products, they make an agreement in writing to do this and set forth the terms and conditions. This agreement is called a commercial treaty. When Washington became president the American people had very few commercial treaties: one with France made in 1778, one with the Netherlands made in 1782, and one with Prussia (now a part of Germany) made in 1785. But with England, the one country with which we had always traded most, we had no commercial treaty. For generations there had been a large trade between England and her colonies in America, until this trade was stopped by the Revolution. Now, because the colonies were independent, all that trade was lost unless a commercial treaty could be made.

But England was in no hurry to make such a treaty. She felt that rebellious colonies should be taught a lesson. And she had a number of loyal colonies left, in Canada and the West Indies. She naturally wanted to reward the loyal colonies by giving them the advantages of her trade. England could do this very well, but it was hard on the United States.

President Washington selected Chief Justice Jay, one of the most able men for the purpose, to persuade the unwilling English to give this treaty to the United States. Jay was patient, tactful, and clever. He endured snubs and smiled at delays. He urged every argument he could think of, and finally he secured a treaty. It was not a good treaty, but it was something to begin on. Only John Jay knew how lucky he was to get any sort of agreement from so powerful a nation as England for so young and weak a nation as the United States.

How the Americans received the Jay Treaty. But if the Americans were young and weak, they themselves did

not realize it. They knew they were a nation, and thought that a nation of any size and strength should be treated politely and justly. Jay's treaty allowed a very little trading with the West Indies and free trading with the far-off East Indies, but it did not give very much in the way of European trade, which was what paid best. The merchants and shippers were very angry. They hanged and burned effigies of Jay and stoned Hamilton when he tried to explain why the treaty should be accepted. It took all the efforts of Washington's friends to persuade the Senate to accept the treaty, but this was finally done in 1796.

Other Commercial Treaties. A much better treaty was secured from Spain about the same time. This treaty allowed the Western farmers to carry their crops down the Mississippi in flatboats, put the wheat or corn or cotton into warehouses there, and, when a European ship came, to put them aboard for the far-off market in Cuba or Europe. With this beginning, the diplomats were able to secure commercial treaties with other nations. After the defeat of Napoleon, world trade gradually grew in amount, and new countries came to have trading relations. Between 1825 and 1850 the United States made trading treaties with twenty-nine different countries all over the world. Among them was China, with which we came into treaty relations in 1844, although American ships had gone to China as early as 1784. In 1844 five Chinese ports were opened to the United States. The most famous of all the commercial treaties was that with Japan. Japan had shut herself up for hundreds of years and refused to have anything to do with other peoples. But in 1854 Commodore Matthew C. Perry of the United States navy persuaded her government to allow American ships to buy coal and food at two ports in that country. Trade was established a little later, and Japan began to be affected by Western (that is, European

The *Winona*, a Clipper Ship of about 1860

This is the kind of swift, strong, graceful vessel with which Americans built up a great foreign trade before the Civil War. (Copyright by George E. Noyes, Newburyport, Massachusetts)

and American) ideas. Because the United States was the first outside nation with which it had become acquainted, the Japanese always looked upon this country as a special friend in those years.

Results of the Commercial Treaties. From the very first days of independence there had been men who represented the United States in business matters at various foreign ports. As the nation entered into trading relations with more and more peoples, there had to be more of these business representatives, or consuls. At first these were simply merchants or gentlemen living in other countries; then the nation began to appoint them and pay them. Gradually a consular system grew up. The consuls sent reports to the Department of State, and when these reports

were printed they helped merchants and manufacturers to know what things were wanted in foreign countries and where they could get things they wanted in return.

This brought about a second result: much more prosperity for the United States than it could have had without foreign trade. Foreign countries wanted all sorts of things from America — food, cotton, machines, and lumber. The shipyards of the Northeast were busy building stanch ships for this foreign trade. In 1845 they began to build the swift and beautiful clippers, the finest sailing craft the world has ever known. In return Americans had many luxuries from foreign lands, — tea, coffee, silks, fine leather and wool goods, wine, fruit, and books, — which made them enjoy life more. When California came into the Union in 1850 the United States had a port at San Francisco which looked directly across the Pacific to China and Japan. On the long voyage to the Far East the ships of Salem and Boston could stop there for food, water, and supplies.

2. How the Monroe Doctrine came into Being

Trouble in South America and Danger from Russia. Shortly after the War of 1812 the Iberian colonies began to revolt. Many of them started independent republics like that which the United States had set up in 1776. Chile, Peru, Mexico, and Brazil were some of them. As soon as this happened, several of the European countries, France among them, formed a group called the Quadruple Alliance, which seemed ready to help in putting down the South American revolutions and giving the colonies back to Spain. England opposed this, because she was afraid her enemy, France, was getting too much power over Spain.

At the same time Russia was claiming more and more territory on that part of the Pacific coast which we know as

Alaska. She even had trading stations on the coast of what is now California. With Great Britain on the north in Canada, with Russia on the northwest, and with Spain on the southwest, what would be the position of the United States? John Quincy Adams, the Secretary of State, at once took up the matter with Russia, and that nation agreed not to go farther south than what is now Alaska.

The Monroe Doctrine. But the danger from Europe was not so easily disposed of. England was ready to join the United States in opposing the Quadruple Alliance, but Adams thought that the United States in alliance with England would be like a little rowboat in the wake of a great man-of-war. He urged Monroe to make a statement to the world explaining our position. Monroe took the advice, and in 1823 sent a message to Congress. The points which he made are listed below. They are known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

1. The European countries ought not to start any new colonies in North or South America.

2. The European countries ought not to interfere with the newly established South American republics.

3. The United States ought not to interfere in the affairs of European countries.

4. The European colonies already in North and South America ought not to grow any larger.

The European countries soon knew what Monroe had written to Congress, for his message was made public. In the face of this and England's opposition the alliance stopped its program. Thereafter the nations of Europe seldom attempted to interfere with the affairs of the New World.

One result of the loss of Spain's New World colonies and the failure of other nations to help her out of her troubles was that Spain was unable to control Florida. The Indians here made a great deal of trouble for white people in Georgia

and Alabama, and Andrew Jackson led some soldiers into the region. Secretary Adams urged Spain to sell Florida to the United States, and in 1821 Spain sold Florida to us for five million dollars.

The Pan-American Idea. The two men at that time who seemed to think very much about the other countries in the New World were John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay. They thought it would be a good thing for all the American countries to join together in a friendly way to do whatever might be best for all. Several leaders in Central and South America thought the same thing. They decided to hold a Pan-American (that is, an All-American) meeting at Panama in 1826. Clay found it very difficult to interest Congress in the idea. Finally Congress selected representatives to go to Panama for the United States, but Congress had argued about it so long that the meeting was over before the ship reached Panama. Nothing came of this at the time, but later the Pan-American idea was reborn.

Review, Project, and Enrichment

1. One of the most famous speeches in American history is that of Fisher Ames in 1796. Why? Read this speech in *Select Orations*, by S. B. Harding.

2. In 1796 the United States was given scant attention because it was weak. Are there any weak countries today which are thus treated? Have they any way of protecting themselves from injustice?

3. Here is a list of some of the nations with which the United States had commercial treaties: Brazil, Chile, China, Denmark, Ecuador, Greece, Hawaii, Morocco, Portugal, Russia, and Siam. Locate them on a map and show the class how world-wide American trade was by 1850.

4. People often say that the Monroe Doctrine contains all sorts of things that it does not contain. Exactly what does it say?

5. Look up and tell the class the story of how Perry "did the impossible" by obtaining friendly relations with Japan, then called the Hermit Kingdom. See *The Path of Empire*, by C. R. Fish, chap v, in Volume XLVI of Chronicles of America.

6. *Resolved*, That it would have been better for the United States to make a joint declaration of policy with Great Britain in 1823.

7. Make a list of the nations in Central and South America that revolted from Spain and Portugal. For this whole story see Hutton Webster's *History of Latin America.*

8. Among the nations with which the United States had treaties in 1850 were Hanover, the Hanseatic republics, Muscat, the Ottoman Empire, Prussia, and the Two Sicilies. Some of these no longer exist; others have changed their names. Can you find out where they were?

UNIT V. HOW THE PIONEERS SHAPED THE NATION

As the Americans moved westward they were forced to change their ways of thinking and doing. The frontier had its own people and aims and manners and ideas and ideals. Just as soon as there were enough people in any territory to make a state, they applied for statehood. Usually it was promptly and gladly granted. This meant that in 1850 the thirteen old states that had made the Union were outnumbered by eighteen new states that had entered since 1789. The people of the new states, of course, influenced those in the old states; and the representatives of the new states in Congress insisted on many laws that expressed their ideas of what governments should be and do. Therefore, as the frontier people grew in numbers and became more convinced that their ideas were right, the whole nation came to be more and more different from the Old World nations, where there was no frontier. This was one of the chief ways in which the American nation came to have a character of its own.

1. The Story of the Westward Movement

In trying to understand why the Mexican War and the annexation of Oregon came about, we have already studied a little about the westward movement. It is necessary to know much more about it. Imagine a huge moving-picture camera somewhere in the sky that could take a moving picture of the process of settling the West through six decades. Then suppose that this long, long picture could be speeded up and thrown on the screen in a few minutes. If that could be done we should see something like this:

In the first two decades (from 1790 to 1810) the hardy Scotch-Irish of the Appalachians slipped down the western slopes — those from Pennsylvania into Ohio, and those from Virginia into Kentucky. Daniel Boone was the great leader of settlement in Kentucky; James Robertson and John Sevier brought colonies to Tennessee. New Englanders also were settling on the Ohio River, where the veterans of the Revolution were given farms. Marietta, the first town across the mountains, was followed by Cincinnati, Zanesville, Sandusky, and Fort Wayne. The settlers always followed the rivers, for there they had water, fuel, food, and building material, as well as a means of travel.

After 1810 there was more migration, and still more after 1815. Where a family had gone, whole villages went now.[1]

[1] A man who was going through western Pennsylvania in 1817 told of seeing people with small wagons containing their bedding, provisions, and dishes. The children were walking along beside the wagon. Another immigrant had merely a horse which was carrying a pack. Still another had no animal at all, and owned nothing but what he and his wife and children could carry on their backs. A man who was traveling to the South in the same year saw a large group going to Alabama together. There were twenty wagons, twenty-nine herds of cattle, twenty-seven droves of hogs, and thirty-eight hundred people. Sometimes many members of a church or a town migrated in a group and founded in the West a new town to which they gave the name of their former home.

Some of them still stopped in Ohio, Kentucky, or Tennessee, for there was good land there yet. But the more venturesome or the poorer now pushed on to Indiana, Illinois, or Missouri. They still preferred to settle on a stream; the villages lined the banks of the rivers and crept up the tributaries. They avoided the open prairies, where water failed in summer, where there was no wood for cabins, and where, as they thought, the soil was so poor that trees could not grow. Vincennes, Vandalia, St. Louis, and Sedalia were the stations on the way.

Bad times in 1819 checked the stream for a little while; but in the twenties it was again on the way, wider than ever. The New Englanders now passed through Ohio and turned north into Michigan or found fine farms in northern Illinois. The Southern planters were reaching Arkansas and Texas. Some Irish and Germans, vanguard of a greater army to come, joined the Americans in the thirties.

Then came the "roaring forties," with hustling activity everywhere. Men had now discovered that the prairies had deep, rich soil that could be plowed up and used at once, without weary years of tree-cutting and brush-burning. In Illinois and in Iowa and Wisconsin and Missouri they bought farms or "squatted," hoping to make the land pay for itself in a few years. Sod houses dotted the prairie, just as log cabins had once dotted the woods. Across the grassy plains little whitish threads of roads began to weave together the scattered settlements. Year after year the land grew green in spring as larger and larger patches of it were planted to crops. If the season was good the fields turned yellow with harvest, and the settlers were nearer to making the homes they hoped for, like some beloved place "back East." If drought or grasshoppers came, the fields were desolate and brown, and the year's work was lost. The restless and thriftless squatters then moved on, hoping for better luck next

time; the determined and intelligent stayed, set their faces, and tried again. They knew that only patience and endurance could transform that great valley into a garden, the home of a people.

The homes were creeping farther out, farther out, all through the forties. Southern Wisconsin was filling up, and Milwaukee began to dream of being a rival to Chicago. And out from the gradually widening frontier line, straight through the strongholds of the Indians, ran the long thread of the Oregon Trail, clear to the coast. A kind of frenzy seemed to seize the people, as the explorers told them of the size and richness of the continent. They wanted to own it all and make it bring forth fruit for them. In the midst of work came the call to arms, and from countless farms and villages the men and boys gathered and marched off to the Mexican War. Those who came back saw more work than ever ahead. They were glad of the shiploads of Irish and Germans who were pouring into America; they were needed for the work. The Irish usually stayed in the cities or followed the railroad lines, but the Germans came out into the central valleys and filled whole counties in Wisconsin and Iowa and Missouri with trim farms and villages. The railroads and the steamship lines sent their shuttles back and forth, and the fabric grew stronger with every added thread of travel and trade.

The fifties began with a feeling of relief and confidence. The Compromise of 1850 had, as people supposed, settled the slavery question. The frontier line moved out to include southern Minnesota, western Iowa, and more and more of Texas. The gold days had brought a mushroom growth to California as well, and now little settlements began to creep up the streams of that state eastward. Some day they would meet the west-moving frontier line, and the frontier days would be over. A great fight was taking place in Kansas

The Parting of the Ways

This scene from the moving picture "The Covered Wagon," which was made from a story by Emerson Hough, represents the sad moment when the pioneers for Oregon and for California, after weeks of travel side by side through the Indian country, must part company. Find on the map on page 203 the exact spot where this took place

between *pro*slavery and *anti*slavery[1] men, who hoped to make Kansas turn the balance one way or the other when it entered the Union. The moving picture of settlement would show long wagon trains from distant New England, from the smiling fields of Ohio, and from the Yankee towns of Michigan and Illinois joining forces and making their way to Kansas. Reaching the territory, they set up their sod houses about Lawrence, where later a great university grew up. Farming began at once, but guns were strapped to the plows. Who knew when a band of "border ruffians" might appear?

[1] Look up these two prefixes from the Latin language.

In 1860 the frontier line ran as is shown in the map on page 229. So quickly had the population grown that twenty new states had been admitted since 1789, and each state added to the national character some distinct gift of its own.

TABLE SHOWING THE GROWTH OF STATES TO 1860

STATE	FIRST SETTLED BY WHITE MEN	MADE INTO A SEPARATE TERRITORY	ADMITTED AS A STATE
Vermont	1724, by English	Separated from New York	1791
Kentucky	1774, Harrodsburg	1790, with Tennessee	1792
Tennessee	1769, Watauga settlement	1792	1796
Ohio	1788, Marietta	1787, with other land	1803
Louisiana	1712, New Orleans	1804	1812
Indiana	About 1732, Vincennes	1800, with Illinois and Michigan	1816
Mississippi	1700, by the French	1798 and 1804	1817
Illinois	1720, Kaskaskia and Cahokia	1809	1818
Alabama	1702, Mobile	1817	1819
Maine	About 1610, scattered adventurers	Separated from Massachusetts	1820
Missouri	1763 or earlier, by the French	1812, including all the Louisiana Purchase except Louisana	1821
Arkansas	1686(?), by the French	1819, with Oklahoma	1836
Michigan	1668, Sault Sainte Marie	1805, Lower Peninsula	1837
Texas	1718, San Antonio	Independent	1845
Florida	1565, St. Augustine	1822	1845
Iowa	1830, Dubuque	1838	1846
Wisconsin	About 1690, Green Bay	1836	1848
California	1759, by the Spanish	Was never a territory	1850
Minnesota	1848, St. Anthony	1849	1858
Oregon	1811, Astoria	1849, with Washington	1859

Review

1. Give a short talk on the topic "Reasons for Going West in 1820."

2. Make an outline of the periods of westward migration. In class, exchange outlines with your neighbor. Criticize his outline for omissions or mistakes. How many can use someone else's outline for a short talk? If one can, what does that show?

3. On an outline map of the eastern United States show the following: all the states that were admitted before 1860, Appalachian Mountains, Green Mountains, Berkshire Hills, the Mohawk, Potomac

The United States, showing the Frontier Line of 1860

and Tennessee rivers, Albany, Springfield, Philadelphia, and the roads which led to the West.

4. Give a floor talk on the topic "The Far West in 1845."

5. What was the origin of the slogan "Remember the Alamo!"?

Projects and Enrichment

1. Do not miss reading a part of Daniel Drake's *Pioneer Life in Kentucky* and Ruth J. Bowlus's *Log Cabin Days in Indiana.*

2. Imagine yourself going West in 1830. Write a journal of your experiences.

3. The table on page 228 shows that some territories filled up after their first white settlement much more rapidly than others, and quickly became states. Which ones? Why?

4. Who can tell the story of Jedediah Smith? See *The Rise of the New West*, by F. J. Turner, pp. 21–22, or *Hidden Heroes of the Rockies*, by I. K. Russell and H. R. Driggs, chaps. xv–xxvi.

5. Who was the Pathfinder? Why was he so called? Read *With Carson and Frémont*, by Edwin L. Sabin, or *Fighting with Frémont*, by Everett McNeil.

2. How the Westerners made New Laws for the Nation

People are often puzzled by the pictures and descriptions of pioneers. Sometimes no two agree. Perhaps a traveler from England who went west in the forties on an Ohio River boat tells us that the pioneers dressed in coarse shirts and buckskin trousers, never shaved or took a bath, and chewed tobacco all day, even at the table. Then one reads a letter from a pioneer, written in beautiful English to his old classmate at Harvard or Princeton. One knows that such a man did not resemble the rivermen in the first description.

The truth is that *every kind of person* went to the frontier. Cultured people, crude people, good people, bad people, thrifty people, shiftless people, all met and mingled in the

West. The strict Puritans from New England met the happy-go-lucky riders from Tennessee, the courtly gentlemen from Virginia, and the shrewd business men from the middle states. These men learned to respect one another; they borrowed good ideas from one another and made them their own. They treated one another as equals, and if they did not like one another they kept still about it. Every man could vote. All the children went to the same free school.

For the most part, people became more simple and helpful on the frontier: they learned how to give and take and how to strip off ceremony and drive quickly to the core of things. They gave credit where credit was due, and honored no man just because his family had been honorable. Each man must stand on his own feet. If he had ability and stayed by his own work until it was done, he succeeded. If he did not, he failed. No one had the time or the means for merely keeping up appearances.

How the West Changed the East. Because every man could vote in the new states, the workingmen in the East also demanded manhood suffrage. In the East in general only men with some property could vote or hold office. The men with property knew that if they did not give the vote to the workers, the workers would move away to states where they could vote. Gradually the old states gave the vote to their workers, and by 1840 manhood suffrage was the rule.

Education. In the spirit of the Northwest Ordinance the Western states set up free schools for their children. The poorer people of the East, who could not afford the private schools, knew this and demanded to have free schools also.[1] The wisest leaders saw that if everyone was to vote, everyone

[1] In New England the people had always believed in free education, but at this time many districts had very poor schools. In New York and Pennsylvania the free schools kept by churches were thought fit only for pauper children.

must be intelligent; otherwise the country would be run by the ignorant and, of course, run badly. In the twenties and thirties there were labor unions in the Eastern cities, and these cried out for free schools. They had influence, for now they could help to elect or defeat public officers. Towns and school districts began to open free schools supported by taxes. By 1850 most boys and girls in the Eastern and Northern states went to a public grade school. The boys who wanted to be ministers, lawyers, or doctors went to college. Citizens and churches founded a hundred and seventy-eight new colleges between 1820 and 1860, and many of these were in the West. In 1819, at Thomas Jefferson's suggestion, the state of Virginia founded the first state university, and in the next thirty years fifteen other states had followed her example. Truly the idea that a state ought to educate its citizens was growing!

What is Land For? In Europe people thought that land should be owned only by gentlemen and nobles, and it cost so much that only the rich could buy it. When Virginia and the other states gave their Western lands to the nation in 1785–1786, the government had to decide how it would give out this land to the people. There were two ideas: some said that the land should be sold at a rather high price, as in Europe. This would bring in a good income to the government and would make taxes lower. But others said that people who had property could well afford to pay taxes. It was the people who had no property who needed help. Let the land be sold to them very cheaply or even given to them. Then, in good time, they would have valuable property, too, and could pay taxes. These two groups had many debates in Congress and throughout the country.

One by one the second group succeeded in getting laws passed to make it easier for a poor man to own a farm. The cheap-land men were mainly Westerners. The Easterners

did not want cheap land, for then the poor men would move West and become farmers instead of working for wages in the East. In 1820 a land law brought the price of land down to $1.25 an acre, and it was never raised afterwards. Then Thomas Hart Benton of Missouri, "the squatter's friend," tried to get a preëmption law passed. A squatter was a poor man who simply settled on a piece of land without buying it and began to farm. Sometimes men with money would buy this land from the government after the squatter had done all the hard work of cutting down trees, plowing and sowing, building fences and cabin and barn, and digging a well. The squatter lost all the fruit of his labor, perhaps the labor of years. The man with money had a legal right to the land with all that stood on it.

Benton's law said that the squatter must always be given the first chance to buy the land he lived on. Perhaps he could borrow money to pay for it; perhaps he could save the money. At all events, no one could buy it without his even knowing that it had been sold at the land office. With his Western and Southern friends, Benton worked for years before he succeeded in having the Preëmption Law passed in 1841. In the fifties the Westerners brought forward an even bolder idea. This was to give a "homestead," or farm, to anyone who would earn it by farming the land and adding fences, house, and trees or perhaps other improvements. But the Western influence was not yet strong enough in the fifties to pass this bill.

Review and Projects

1. *Resolved*, That the people of the West in 1850 were more like the founders of the colonies than were the people of the East.

2. Westward migration tended always to be in rather straight lines from east to west; that is, few Northerners went to the Southwest and few Southerners went to the Northwest. Why?

3. Was the farm land in your neighborhood ever sold at $1.25 an acre? What is its average worth today? What percentage of increase in value is that?

4. Choose sides and debate these questions: (1) *Resolved*, That the public land ought to have been free from the very first; (2) *Resolved*, That the people of North Carolina and Georgia had more reasons for going West about 1830 than the people of New England.

5. Where did the pioneers who first settled your neighborhood come from? When was your town on the frontier? When did it have its first school? its first church? its first public library?

6. The effects of the West on the East have been mentioned. Can you think of ways in which the East affected the West?

UNIT VI. HOW THE MANUFACTURERS SHAPED THE NATION

While the frontier with its farming interests was shaping the life and thought of the nation, the stay-at-home Eastern manufacturers and shippers, who used the products of the farmers, were also doing their share. These men were intelligent and they knew how to act together; so they had great influence. The businesses of manufacturing, exchanging various products, and sending the products here and there to be sold and used are often spoken of together as industry.

1. How the Industrial Revolution came to America

Between 1760 and 1800 a number of Englishmen invented machinery which greatly changed the making of yarn and cloth. What had before been made by hand in people's cottages came to be made instead by machines in great factories. This change is generally known as the "Industrial Revolution."

Manufacturing in the United States before 1815. Long before the War of 1812 there was some manufacturing in the colonies and states. Coal was mined in Virginia, and there

were successful iron-making companies in Richmond. There were small factories in the West. Pittsburgh, already a center of industry, was known as a smoky city before the War of 1812.

Still greater progress had been made in New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. A well-stocked store in the East had a wide range of goods on its shelves, all made in America. A great part of these, however, was made by the people in their homes. The women and girls busied themselves with spinning, weaving, and making candles and soap, as the women of England did. The men attended to the heavy work of the farm and, during the less busy season, made nails, barrels, shingles, or wagon parts. Besides these homemade products, every little settlement had its small shops for tanning leather or making horseshoes, wagons, or harness.

The Yankee Peddler. Most people did not live in towns or even near them. Manufactured articles were brought to them by the old-fashioned peddler, usually a Yankee.[1] The peddler fitted himself out with a horse and wagon and with boxes of tinware, pins and needles, scissors and buttons, hats, shoes, and clocks. Driving from farm to farm, he told the news he had picked up and sold his wares to the housekeeper. He was to be seen on Cape Cod, near Lake Erie, at Detroit, or in Kentucky. Perhaps he would go far south, to Charleston or Savannah, selling his goods and finally his horse and cart, and then return to some New England town to begin all over again.[2]

[1] The word "Yankee" has had a curious history. A hundred years ago it meant a New Englander. From the time of the Civil War the people of the South have spoken of *all* Northerners as Yankees. And now in Europe many people call every American a Yankee.

[2] Many of these peddlers made considerable fortunes for those days. One of them made money enough to found a thriving scientific college in Worcester, Massachusetts. This was John Boynton.

Samuel Slater's Wonderful Head. While American manufactures were growing in the home and spreading out in the little shops, the English were beginning the Industrial Revolution, as we have seen. A few of these ideas were used in the United States, but not much was known about machinery until Samuel Slater came from England in 1789.

It was against English law to take the new inventions out of the country, but Slater read in an American newspaper that prizes were being offered in the United States for the invention of new machinery. He studied the machines until he could make them from memory, and then he came to America. In 1790 he built a cotton mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, where there was the water power necessary to run the machinery. Slater's mill was successful. Others imitated him; and from that time to the present day the region around Pawtucket has had factories for making cotton goods. The year 1790 is remembered as the birth-year of the factory system in the United States.

Eli Whitney's Cotton Gin. The use of all this machinery in England and America increased the demand for cotton. Plenty of it could be grown in the South, but it took so long to pick out the seeds by hand that cotton-growers could not keep up with the machines. Then Eli Whitney, a Yankee school-teacher in Georgia, solved the difficulty. In 1793 he invented a small machine which separated the cotton seeds from the fiber quickly and well. As soon as the new machine, known as a cotton "gin," was in operation, one man, using a horse to run the machine, could clean the seeds from more cotton than three hundred men could by hand. The people of the South at once began to plant cotton for the English and American mills. New land was cleared, planters moved farther West and made new plantations, more slaves were brought in to work in the cotton fields, and cotton became the great Southern crop.

2. The Early Factories and Factory Towns

The success of Slater's mills and the increase of cotton production brought new mills to the New England states. Massachusetts especially turned to this industry. By 1807 there were fifteen mills in New England. The embargo and the War of 1812, which kept foreign manufactured goods out of the country, and the protective tariff, which began in 1816, helped to establish cotton manufactures. In 1815, just after the War of 1812 came to an end, Francis C. Lowell started a mill at Waltham, Massachusetts, in which the whole process of making cloth was carried on under one roof by water power.

Factory-made goods were cheaper than homemade goods could be. One kind of cotton cloth dropped from forty-two cents a yard to seven and a half cents between 1815 and 1830. More people could buy cotton goods now. They began to wear a greater variety of garments and to take more pride in their appearance.

The women and girls who worked at home with spinning-wheels and hand looms could not compete with the factories, of course. As time passed, people in the country made fewer and fewer things at home and bought more and more at the stores. Horse power gave way to water power, and water power to steam. At last the spinning-wheel and the hand loom found their way to attics and museums, as they had also in England.

How the Factory Towns Grew. As soon as a factory was established, houses must be built close by for the workmen. Then grocery stores and a post office and a church were necessary, and a school for the children. Young people from the country round about began to leave the farms and go to factory towns to work. Frequently whole families went. The father and children all worked in the mills, and often the mother as well.

Good and Bad Sides to these Changes. The factories gave rise to many difficulties, some of which still trouble us. The earlier shops were badly ventilated, poorly lighted, unheated in winter, and dangerous to health. Whirling machinery was unguarded, and workmen often had fingers or arms cut off. A majority of the workers were women and children. This meant poor homes for working families and a poor start in life for the children. The working hours were from twelve to fourteen each day. Much of the work was done by candlelight or whale-oil lamp, and was harmful to the eyes of the workers.

The houses of the workers were as bad as the factories themselves. Epidemics, especially of smallpox, used to sweep the crowded towns. Hundreds of people died because no one knew how to prevent diseases or to stop their spreading. The workers had moved away from their healthful country homes and had not yet learned how to be healthy in towns.

The good results of the factory system were felt by people who bought the product of the factories. For them, goods were cheaper and better than they had been before, and life became a little easier. The women and girls did not have to work such long hours. The men and boys could read or skate or loaf in the winter, whereas once they must make nails or barrels. Life was more cheerful now than it was when everything had to be made by hand.

As for the men who owned the factories, many of them made fortunes. Nevertheless, when the factory was first set up they had a haunting fear that perhaps their venture would fail. Wages were lower in Europe, and that meant that things could be made more cheaply there than in America. Suppose the European manufacturer sent his goods across the sea and people bought them rather than American-made goods?

There was a way of shutting foreign goods out of America: a protective tariff. If the merchant who bought foreign goods had to pay a high entrance duty, he would prefer to buy American goods. That was why the manufacturers persuaded Congress to pass a protective-tariff law in 1816. After that, whenever they could, they persuaded Congress to make it higher still. They soon found out that if foreign goods were kept out of America by a high tax, they could charge much more for their own product. For this reason high tariffs made high prices, although the prices were never so high as they had been in the days of handmade goods.

The farmers objected to these high prices, as we have seen, especially in the South (p. 193). In the North there was not so much objection; for the manufacturers told the farmers that when tariffs were high, wages were also high. If wages were high, the workers could buy the farmers' meat and wheat. Because of this argument many Northern farmers supported the tariff.

Review

1. A new kind of revolution is mentioned in the foregoing discussion. Explain the meaning and the importance of the three revolutions that you have read about in this book. They are the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution.

2. Give a floor talk of two or three minutes on the following:

a. Samuel Slater and the Year 1790.
b. How Goods were sold in the Eighteen-twenties.
c. Eli Whitney and the Year 1793.

3. Samuel Slater on leaving England said, "The authorities can search my pockets and my baggage, but they cannot search my head." Explain what he meant.

4. Account for the fact that most of the early factories were located in the New England or the middle-Atlantic states. What is the "fall line"?

5. Show why the growth of the factory system in the United States was so slight between 1790 and 1812.

6. You will enjoy reading "How the Cities Looked," in J. T. Faris's *When America was Young*, chap. viii.

7. Jefferson believed that America would be happier if the people remained on the farms and tilled the soil than it would be if they moved to the cities and built factories. What can be said for or against this opinion?

8. Can any one of the pictures on pages 70 and 85 be a photograph? Why?

Projects and Enrichment

1. Read "How Cotton became King of Clothing" and "The Coming of the Factory to America," in E. C. Brooks's *Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States*, chaps. vi, vii.

2. Between 1790 and 1810 much manufacturing was done in the home. If you want to know how much, read R. M. Tryon's *Household Manufactures in the United States*, chaps. iv, v.

3. Read "The Rise of Cotton," in A. H. Sanford's *Story of Agriculture in the United States*, chap. xi.

4. Show to what extent the bad sides of the early factories and factory cities have been corrected.

5. Look up and tell the class the romantic stories of James Hargreaves and his jenny, Edmund Cartwright and his power loom, and James Watt and his steam engine. All this lies behind the story of the Industrial Revolution in America. See *The Story of Mankind*, by Hendrik Willem Van Loon, p. 390, and *Historic Inventions*, by Rupert S. Holland.

3. How Better and Faster Transportation made the Nation

The farmers were raising more flax, wool, wheat, meat, and dairy foods than they themselves could use. The manufacturers were turning out tons of cloth, glass, ironware, and leather goods each year. The farmers needed to sell their

A Conestoga Wagon

Named for Conestoga, Pennsylvania, where such wagons were made. Note the strength, and the device of the slanting sides for space. On the Western plains this wagon became the prairie schooner of song and story

crops, and the manufacturers needed to sell their output. How were the two to be exchanged? At first there were not nearly enough roads, wagons, waterways, and boats for the exchange of goods. But soon Yankee wit changed all that. The story of how the carrying machinery of the nation — transportation, as it is called — developed is full of interest.

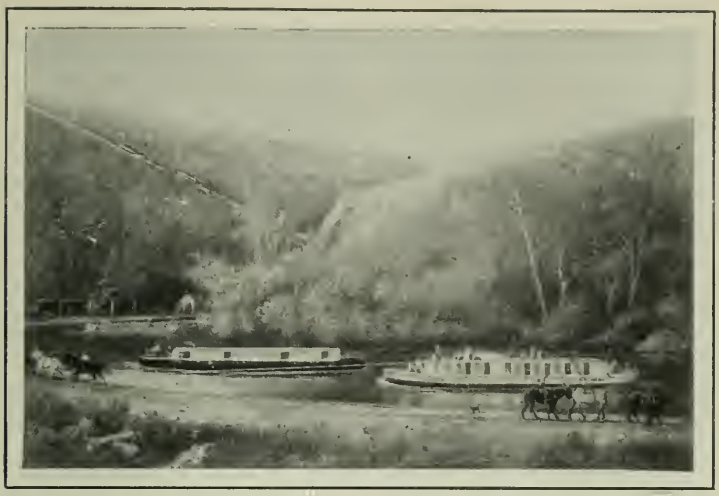
The map on page 199 shows the early travel routes. We know that in colonial times men walked, rode horseback, or drove in Conestoga wagons on the roads. They took their household goods to a new home or their crops to market on a flatboat if they could go by some river. But there were few good roads, and the rivers were not always where they were wanted! Therefore the Americans introduced four great improvements:

An Old-Time Stagecoach, a Tavern, and a Covered Wagon

Note the tavern sign, the Conestoga wagon, the stagecoach with its rack for baggage, and the horses being led to the stables. How often were the horses changed?

1. The first was the *improved highway.* In 1792 a private company built a road from Philadelphia to Lancaster, Pennsylvania, known as a turnpike.[1] Others followed this example, and in 1800–1807 more than three thousand miles of good roads were built. The most important single road was called the Cumberland Road and later the National Road. It went from Baltimore to Cumberland and from Cumberland westward to Wheeling, Columbus, and finally to St. Louis. It was started by Maryland and finished by the United States government. Other highways were built by the states to

[1] Since men invested their money in such roads, as in any other business venture, those who used them had to pay a fee, or toll. At places on the road there were long poles across the road, covered with sharp points, or pikes. A gatekeeper turned the poles so that the traveler could go through after he had paid his toll, which varied with the size of the load or the kind of carriage. Both poles and roads were called "turnpikes."



Freight Barge and Passenger Packet in the Canal Basin at the Foot of the Allegheny Portage Railroad

This picture shows one of the most remarkable transportation systems in American history. It was necessary to create a means of travel from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh and back, but the high Alleghenies between the two cities seemed to forbid a canal. Pennsylvania therefore built canals through the fairly level spaces until the mountains were reached. Then the canal boat was fastened to a cable and pulled up an inclined plane by a stationary engine (this inclined plane may be seen in the background of the picture). When it reached the top of the first plane, it was pulled on a railroad until it reached another plane, which it mounted as before. After the boat reached the top of the mountains, it was let down the other side by planes until it reached canals again. Some of the planes were over half a mile long. In the first seven months of operation nineteen thousand passengers and thirty-seven thousand tons of goods were carried on this combination system. (Picture reproduced by permission of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum)

connect with the National Road. Stagecoach and freight lines were started, and taverns were built. As the means of travel became better the number of travelers increased. Most people traveled only when they had to, but there were some who went for pleasure.[1]

[1] For instance, many people who had settled in the West and done well went back to their old homes to visit their stay-at-home relatives. And it was during this period that wedding journeys became common.

2. The second improvement was in *canal-building*. The most famous canal was the Erie, from the Hudson River at Albany along the Mohawk valley and westward to Lake Erie, a distance of three hundred and sixty-three miles. It took eight years — from 1817 to 1825 — to build it, and its opening in the latter year (after many had declared it could not be built) was a great event in our history.[1]

The effects of the canal were immediate and amazing. The products which the people of the West were growing could now be easily carried by water from places near the Great Lakes to New York City, and from there abroad or to Eastern cities on the coast. The cost of carrying goods from Buffalo to New York dropped from $100 a ton to $8. Towns began to grow along the canal, such as Syracuse, with its manufacture of salt, and Rochester, with its flour mills. Wheat, grain, lumber, and furs began to come East; furniture and manufactured articles began to go West.

So great was the success of the Erie Canal that another was built to connect Lake Champlain with the Hudson River, and others in Ohio, New England, Pennsylvania, and the South. Everybody in the West was talking canals in 1830, although there was very little money then with which to build them. By that time nearly four thousand miles of canals had been built, and seven thousand miles more were planned. The whole country might have been covered with

[1] On October 26, 1825, the entire canal was at last ready for use. A fleet of canal boats drawn by horses started from Buffalo. On the first boat there were two kegs filled with water from Lake Erie. As soon as the fleet started, a cannon was fired, and then another farther along the bank of the canal as soon as the noise was heard. So the message was passed along by a continuous line of cannon the length of the canal and down the Hudson River to New York. As soon as the sound reached New York the return message was fired from cannon to cannon back to Buffalo. When the fleet of boats reached New York the contents of the kegs were poured into the Atlantic Ocean to commemorate the fact that the lakes and the sea had been joined.

De Witt Clinton **Robert Fulton**

It was De Witt Clinton's "big ditch" that made New York City, with its fine harbor, the greatest port and business center of the nation. He was governor of New York. Although Robert Fulton was not the inventor of the steamboat, he was the first man to make it a commercial success. When the *Clermont* ran from New York to Albany, a hundred and fifty miles, in thirty-two hours, a new era of transportation dawned on the world. At Albany, a few years later, the boats connected with the Erie Canal. (Fulton's portrait was painted by himself)

canals had not other inventions at just that point offered still faster and better ways of carrying people and goods.

3. The third great advance was the *steamboat*. Great as other improvements were, they were too slow for American needs. The Erie canal boats went at four miles an hour, the speed of a brisk walk. Flatboats took a month to go from Pittsburgh to New Orleans and much longer for the return trip; they could make but one or two trips a year. John Fitch was the American inventor of the steamboat. In 1785 he made a boat that would run by steam, and in 1789 it was so improved that it made regular trips on the Delaware River. Other men were working on the same idea, among them Robert R. Livingston and Robert Fulton. In

1807 Fulton's *Clermont* made regular trips from New York to Albany and back. In 1811 a steamboat was launched on the Mississippi. This river is dangerous, and accidents were frequent in the early days. But gradually the difficulties were overcome, and steamboats ran very successfully on all the rivers of the central valley after 1817. The *Walk-in-the Water* on Lake Erie in 1818 marked the beginning of successful steamboat travel on the Great Lakes. In time steamboats drove the slower flatboat from the waters. As late as 1850 twelve hundred flatboats arrived in New Orleans from "up river," but there had been sixteen hundred in 1840.

Great were the effects of the steamboat. It enabled people to go from place to place with less cost in time and money. Goods produced in the North, the South, the East, and the West could be more easily exchanged. The value of the cargoes carried by the steamboats on the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes in the eighteen-fifties ran up into hundreds of millions of dollars.

4. *Railroads.* In 1829 England was beginning to use a contrivance called the railroad. A man named George Stephenson had built a steam engine called the *Rocket*, which would pull cars along a track. Americans became interested in the plan. Crude railroads were built for short distances in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was begun on July 4, 1828. Charles Carroll, the last living signer of the Declaration of Independence, took part in starting it. A small line was also operated in South Carolina not long afterwards.

The first railways were really *rail* roads; that is, roads with rails on them. The tracks were made of wood, the cars were built like stagecoaches, and horses drew the cars as if they were on a road or a highway. Horses were quickly replaced by steam engines. In 1831 Peter Cooper built a steam engine which ran from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills,

The *Best Friend*, the First Locomotive built in the United States for Actual Service on a Railroad

From a drawing made at the time by an eyewitness

a distance of thirteen miles. The name of the engine was *Tom Thumb*, and its speed was six miles an hour. One day *Tom Thumb* on the way back raced a car drawn on tracks by a horse. The race was nip and tuck until something went wrong with the engine; then the horse won.

In 1844 Samuel F. B. Morse invented the telegraph. This helped railroading, since it enabled railroad officers to send word on ahead that a train was coming, and this prevented accidents.[1]

Growth of the Railroads. Railroad lines were built out from Philadelphia, Boston, and New York and from Southern cities. Throughout Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan more and more towns were connected with the great cities and more and more farmers could send their crops to market over the rails. In 1850 there were about ten thousand miles

[1] A journey made by a twelve-year-old boy and his sister from Ohio to Vermont in 1834 illustrates the different means of travel in the United States at that time. From Delaware, Ohio, they went by stage to Fremont; by boat from Fremont to Sandusky; by steamer from Sandusky to Buffalo; by canal boat to Schenectady; by railroad to Saratoga; and by stage from Saratoga to Bennington, Vermont. The boy was Rutherford B. Hayes, who later became president of the United States.

Canals, Railroads, and River and Ocean Routes in 1850

Compare this map with the table on page 228 to find out if there is any relation between the location of canals and the settlement and statehood of the states. Can you tell from this map which cities were centers of trade in 1850?

of railroad in the country; in 1860 there were thirty-one thousand miles, enough to go around the world with some to spare. In spite of this great growth, however, it will be seen from the map that there were large spaces that still had no railroad in the fifties and sixties. Nor was railroad traveling very pleasant or very safe. Brakes were poor, and starting and stopping were painful indeed. Cars were not yet very comfortable, and ways had to be found for safely

heating and lighting the coaches. Engines had still to be built that would not break down.

Effects of the Railroads. As soon as the railroads became fairly fast and safe, many changes took place in America:

The canal fever was lessened, for canal boats were now too slow except for heavy loads like wheat and coal.

The nation and the states gave land to the railroad companies, and people began to invest in them all the money they could save.

Highways were built to connect with the railroad stations.

Where railroads crossed or ended or came together, towns sprang up.

Whenever a railroad began to run in a region, factory-made goods began to come in, and the products of the region began to go out on the trains. The peddler came less often, for his goods could now be brought in by trains and sold at the village store.

People traveled more. The West, especially, filled up more rapidly, and people went to the cities to live.

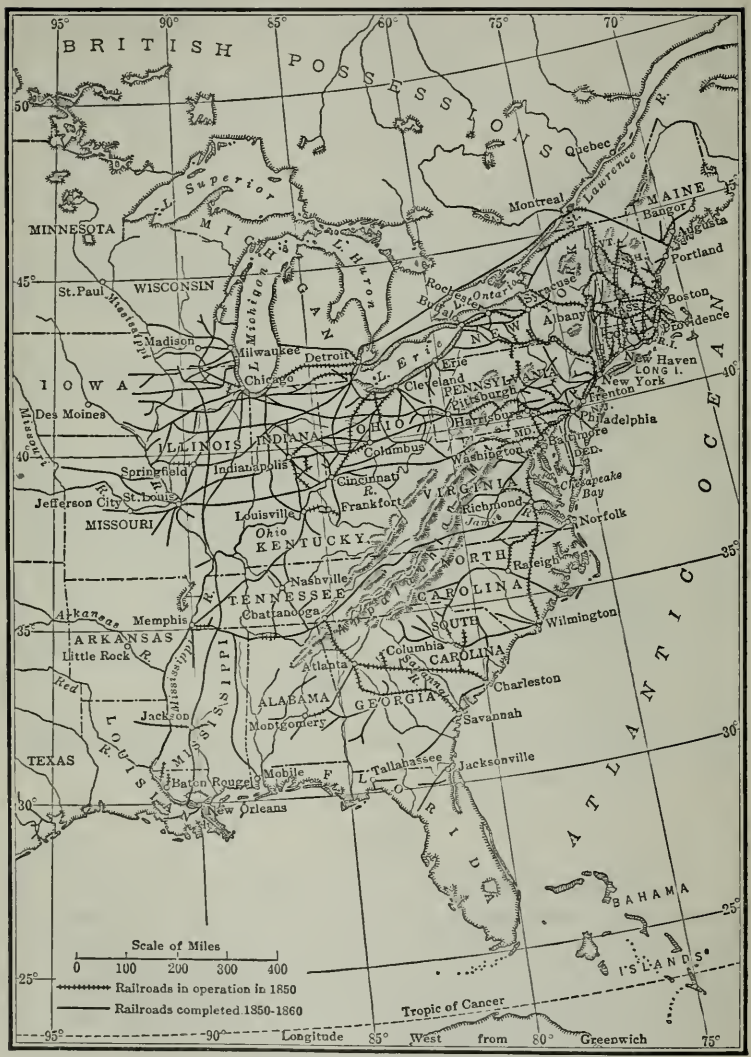
The farmers were greatly benefited by the railroad. Wherever it went, it enabled them to send their products more easily to market.

Review

1. Highways and canals were called internal improvements. The Middle West wanted the government to make many such improvements, and the states along the Atlantic seaboard sometimes opposed. Explain why each section took the stand that it did.

2. Give a floor talk of three minutes on each of these topics:

a. The National Road.
b. The Effects of the Erie Canal on the West.
c. Taking a Canal Boat over the Allegheny Mountains.
d. Different Means of Travel in the United States in 1830.
e. The Effects of the Steamboat on the West.



The Railroads in 1860

3. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to illustrate the increase in canal mileage between 1830 and 1850.

Date	Total Miles of Canals
1830	1270
1840	3320
1850	3700

4. "Effects of the Railroad before 1860." Discuss this topic in a brief floor talk.

5. Compare canals and railroads as means of transportation.

6. How many railroads and canals can you trace from memory on the wall map? In each case tell why a means of travel should have been made in that place. What products would it carry each way?

Projects and Enrichments

1. Good reading on transportation: Chapters X–XIII of Grace Vollintine's *Making of America*; chapters on "The Erie Canal" and "The National Road," in *From Trail to Railway through the Appalachians*, by A. P. Brigham; and Inez N. McFee's *Story of Robert Fulton*.

2. The railroads financially ruined many people who had put their money in canals. Does this prove that the railroads ought not to have been built?

3. Excellent material on the better and faster transportation is found in *From Trail to Railroad through the Appalachians*, by A. P. Brigham; *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard; *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks; *The Story of Corn and the Westward Migration*, by E. C. Brooks; and *Real Stories from our History*, by J. T. Faris. Be sure to read some of these.

4. Suppose you had been Rutherford B. Hayes, going with your sister on the journey outlined in the note on page 246. Write the letter home that he might have written on his arrival in Bennington.

5. John Hay's famous little poem "Jim Bludso" tells the story of the *Prairie Belle* and her helmsman, and Mark Twain's *Life on the Mississippi* gives a vivid picture of river days. Find the poem in *Cumnock's Choice Readings* (by Robert M. Cumnock), *American Poems* (by A. W. Long), or *Ballads of American Bravery* (by Clinton Scollard).

4. How Inventors and Laborers Shaped the Nation

In this huge United States, with all the people that were added to the population from big families and immigrants, there were still not enough people to do the work. Therefore the most clever and ingenious citizens set themselves to make machines that would enable one man or woman to do what several had done before. By using these inventions one person could produce as much wheat or clothing or lumber as perhaps twenty persons had once produced. Without the inventions the country could never have developed so fast or so well as it did. It is clear, then, that the patient, hard-working inventors had a large part in making the nation what it has become.

Farm Machinery. The greatest need was for help in farming, since this was the greatest American industry. And here the inventors were very helpful indeed. An especially important improvement was the iron plow. For centuries farmers had used wooden plows, which broke and wore out quickly. In 1825 Jethro Wood of New York made one of iron. It was made in parts, so that if one part broke, the injured piece could be taken out and a new one put in. Early in the eighteen-thirties great numbers of farmers were using iron plows. Horses began to be used instead of oxen in plowing, and the farmer was able to work more rapidly.

Another important invention was the McCormick *reaper.* On the fertile plains of the West the grain grew so bountifully that the farmer was not able to reap it, even with the help of his wife and children, although they worked from sunrise to sunset. The trouble was that the only reaping tool was the sickle or the scythe. Many men tried to improve on these tools. At length a farmer named McCormick, living in the Shenandoah valley in Virginia, produced a machine which he called a reaper. His son, a blacksmith, improved upon it.

Harvesting in 1831

A model of McCormick's first reaper

In 1831 he made a machine that did the work of many men with sickles and scythes. In 1847 he built a factory in Chicago to make the machines, and they came more and more into use. Not long afterwards a machine was invented which separated the kernels of grain from the straw and chaff. These changes, together with the immigrants who came to work on the farms, helped the farmer to produce the food which the country needed, in spite of the fact that so many people were giving up farming and going into the factories in the cities.

The *sewing-machine* was invented in 1846 by Elias Howe. In a few years it was being sold by tens of thousands. Women found their home work far lighter now, and more and more clothing could be made entirely outside the home, in factories. After a few years machines were made that could stitch through leather, and then shoes too were made in factories instead of little shops. Shoes became less and less

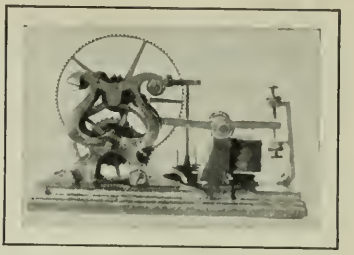
costly, so that people who used to go barefoot except on Sundays could now wear shoes all through the week. When the Civil War came the soldiers could have shoes and uniforms as soon as they enlisted, because the sewing-machine made quick work possible.

Elias Howe's Sewing-machine, now preserved in Washington

It ran by hand power, and similar machines may still be bought

A method of using *rubber* for making things waterproof was discovered about the same time by Charles Goodyear. Boots and shoes were made of it, and raincoats and other goods. *Matches*, already invented in Europe, were introduced into this country. The use of *ether* was discovered in 1846. A patient who had to have a surgical operation could breathe a little of it and have his operation without any pain. In 1846 Richard M. Hoe invented the *rotary press*. By means of it books and newspapers were printed more quickly than ever before in the history of the world. A means of making *photographs* was devised about 1850; also the *passenger elevator*. In fact, the United States Patent Office was kept busy making records of the new inventions which were being thought of.[1]

[1] When anybody thinks of a new machine or a new method of making anything, he may ask the government to give him a "patent." A patent is a statement from the government which tells who first got the right to make the new machine and which forbids other people to manufacture it without permission. For example, on the receiver of my telephone are the words "Patented in the United States of America, December 4, 1900." This was the date when a patent was issued for improvements in the receiver.



The original instrument, preserved in Washington, on which the first message ("What hath God wrought") was sent in 1844. The first line ran from Baltimore to Washington

Samuel F. B. Morse and the Telegraph

Between 1830 and 1860 the United States began to resemble the modern world in which we live. Our railroads today are much bigger and safer, and trains go faster than they did in 1830 or 1840; but the small lines built in those early days contained the whole idea of the railroad. Farm machinery and sewing-machines and the telegraph have been improved again and again, but the original machines started the whole process of improvement.

The canals after 1825 and the railroads after 1830 made possible also the development of metal work. Heavy machinery was made, such as looms for the cloth mills, and such small things as axes, tools, and nails. Southern New England made tinware, clocks, and brass goods for the Yankee peddler to sell everywhere. The use of coal created a great demand for iron stoves (three hundred thousand of them in the single year 1850), and the old-fashioned fireplace went quickly out of general use.

The growth of the railroads made necessary the manufacture of heavy iron rails, engines, and freight cars and so gave Pennsylvania one of its chief industries.

Labor Unions. The growth of factory industry gave the United States its labor question. The workers saw the factory owners getting rich, and they wanted their pay raised. They saw the public schools being started, and they wanted their children to have the advantages of an education. About 1827 the workingmen began to form unions and ask for free schools, shorter working days, and other improvements. The panic of 1837 put an end to many of the labor unions, because large numbers of men were thrown completely out of work. The unions were formed again during the forties, and again they were hindered by a period of poor business which began in 1857. Nevertheless the laboring man knew what he wanted — better pay, shorter hours, and an education for his children. The time would come when he would organize again and ask for reforms.

Many people who were not factory workers thought these reforms reasonable and right. They began to think about what was fair to every kind of worker, but especially for those who had to depend on wages. So the factory worker added his ideas to those of the statesmen and farmers and inventors, and out of it all there came in time the America that we live in.

The End of Home Manufacture. Not only did the factory workers give the nation new ideas about justice, but their product actually changed the lives of all the people in the country. We know that when the nation was born most of the people wore clothes spun and woven at home. The time when the several parts of the country gave up homemade goods and got them from the shops or factories varied greatly. New England was the first to give up homemade things. By 1830 the families were going into the mill towns to work. By 1860 the process that had begun first in New England had extended all over the United States. Of course the process was not the same in all parts of the Union, and of

course it did not come to an end everywhere at the same time. Even in 1860 there were parts of the country where many people wore cloth which was made in the home. Nevertheless, by 1860 factory-made tools, clothes, shoes, flour, and other things were much more common than homemade goods.

Review, Project, and Enrichment

1. Compare and contrast Eli Whitney's invention with Cyrus McCormick's as to its influence and importance.

2. Comment on the importance of the following inventions: the iron plow, the sewing-machine, matches, the rotary press, the passenger elevator, and the telegraph.

3. Show McCormick's wisdom in building his factory in Chicago.

4. What is the importance today of Charles Goodyear's discovery? of the discovery and use of ether?

5. Be sure to read "When Reapers were New," "The Story of the Plow," and "Prairie Agriculture," in *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by A. H. Sanford.

6. Who can make the longest list of patented articles in the schoolroom or at home?

7. *Resolved*, That England had a right to keep her machinery in her own land.

8. Show how manufacturing and transportation depend one upon the other for rapid growth and permanent existence.

9. Why did the labor unions almost die out after 1837 and 1857?

10. Show why the end of the family factory came more slowly in some sections of the country than in others.

11. Mention a number of "left-overs" of the family factory that we still have with us.

12. Find out from Rolla M. Tryon's *Household Manufactures in the United States*, chap. viii, the value of household manufactures in your own state for the years 1840, 1850, and 1860. You might be able to find the same material for the whole country.

UNIT VII. HOW ARTISTS AND IDEALISTS SHAPED THE NATION

An artist is one who does anything in a beautiful way. People usually think of artists as painters, sculptors, or musicians; but a boy who keeps his home lawn smooth and green, or a girl who sets the table so that it is a joy to see, is an artist. When a country is very new, there is not much time for doing things beautifully, and, of course, there are not many artists. The colonies had had some fine architects and a few painters.[1] Now that the most necessary things, such as roads and houses, were done, other artists had a chance to show Americans how to do things beautifully.

1. Artists in Many Fields

Oratory was a great art in the colonies and among the states in the early days. We have seen how men like Otis and Henry swayed men by the power of their speeches. At a later period Edward Everett was a famous orator; Wendell Phillips was another. Henry Clay delighted vast audiences in the West. The greatest of all was Daniel Webster, whose speech on the Union in 1830 aroused such love and loyalty in the hearts of his countrymen. For many years thousands of American boys and girls recited parts of Webster's greatest speeches, especially the last lines of the "Reply to Hayne":

> . . . everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every true American heart — Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!

[1] Benjamin West (1738–1820) was probably the best-known American painter. He was honored both in the Old World and the New. His most famous painting represents the death of Wolfe at Quebec in 1759; there are several copies in Canada and the United States.

The first really American writers were the statesmen who wrote about the government, as did Alexander Hamilton. Soon after the War of 1812 there appeared several writers who became very well known. Washington Irving, with his stories of Dutch life in New York, was the most famous, and he was the first American author to be widely read in Europe. He was followed by James Fenimore Cooper, with his stirring Indian stories and such others as *The Spy* and *The Pilot*. These stories were even more popular abroad than Irving's. William Cullen Bryant, who wrote about American scenes, was the first great poet of the nation. His language was so beautiful that all who read his verses saw new beauty in common things.

Other writers devoted themselves to writing about the things which they saw about their own homes. John Howard Payne experienced the sadness of wandering, and wrote "Home, Sweet Home." In 1815 the *North American Review* was started to provide Americans with a magazine of their own. A little later J. J. Audubon wrote the *Birds of America*, the best-known study of wild life in the United States, and Asa Gray became the nation's first famous botanist. There were many other writers, whose works are now forgotten.

Story-Writers of the Forties and Fifties. Between 1840 and 1850 more famous writers were at work in the United States than ever before. Among them were several of the best story-writers America has produced. Nathaniel Hawthorne wrote *The House of the Seven Gables*, *Twice-Told Tales*, and other stories that have delighted American children and grown-ups ever since. The South and the Southern Indians were woven into stories by William Gilmore Simms. Edgar Allan Poe wrote short stories, such as "The Gold Bug," which are still read everywhere.

Several favorite poets also belong to these and later years. Longfellow was quoted and loved all over the United

The Capitol in the Thirties

Dr. William Thornton, a West Indian architect, planned the Capitol of the United States. Benjamin Latrobe and Charles Bulfinch later added much to its beauty. This picture, made from an engraving dated 1839, shows only the rotunda and central portion of the present enlarged building

States and even more in England. John Greenleaf Whittier wrote about life in New England and about the wrongs of slavery. Most beautiful of all were the exquisite verses of Edgar Allan Poe and, later, of Sidney Lanier.

After 1840 the Americans began to write the history of their own and other lands. George Bancroft wrote about the American colonies and the Revolution; Palfrey, about New England; Prescott, about South America; Motley, about the Netherlands; and Parkman, about Canada in the days of La Salle, Champlain, and Marquette.

Architecture and Cabinetmaking. As the people grew prosperous they wanted more beautiful homes and public buildings. Good architects planned these buildings, and there were good carpenters and masons to make them. The style was still Georgian, but it was now influenced by some of the beautiful things that the French made in Napoleon's time.

Thomas Jefferson planned and built the college halls of the University of Virginia, about 1820, in the finest Greek style. Young men from all over the South came to this university. They went home filled with a love for Greek architecture; and whenever they helped to build a house or a courthouse or a church after that, they built it in the Greek, or classical, style. There are many of these buildings still in use in all the Southern states.

At the same time the makers of furniture, or cabinetmakers, were very skilled. The United States had a good supply of walnut, the finest of cabinet woods, and also of cherry and maple. Fine mahogany was brought in from Cuba. The furniture of the American Empire period (as late Georgian furniture is called) was so beautiful that people who still own a piece of it are very proud of it, and modern cabinetmakers often copy it.

People with good houses and furniture wanted their out-of-doors to match, and in these years the art of gardening came to be more common. There had been very fine gardens in colonial times about the mansions of the rich; now ordinary houses began to have lawns, shrubbery, flowers, and shade trees. Even the prairie towns had tree-lined streets.

There were painters and sculptors in America during this time, and many of them did good work; but they have been forgotten by all but special students of those things. Young ladies were taught to copy pictures, and most of the artists went to Europe and copied the masters there in the same careful way. Lowell Mason in Boston and New York wrote church music which is still used, and many lovers of music founded orchestras and began to compose music. Jonas Chickering in Boston began to make American pianos which were even better than many made in Europe.

Project and Enrichment

1. Read some of Washington Irving's stories in *The Sketch-Book* and tell them to the class. Do you know the tale of Rip Van Winkle?

2. How many of Cooper's novels have you read? Are they true pictures of Indian and frontier life? Can you see why they pleased the Europeans?

3. Do you know Bryant's "To a Waterfowl"? His most famous poem is called "Thanatopsis." Ask your teacher to explain the meaning of the title and the theme of the poem. Read it aloud to feel the march of its lines.

4. A volume of Longfellow's poems takes one all over the world during many centuries. Do you like his poems? Why? Can you see why stay-at-home Americans loved them in the eighteen-fifties and later?

5. Was Whittier as truly an American poet as Longfellow? Do you know "Snowbound"? "The Barefoot Boy"?

6. Do you know any American Empire furniture, genuine or copied, that was made in America? When was it made? Where? How can you tell that it is old?

7. Are there any houses in your neighborhood that were built before 1850? Are they beautiful or not? Were they well built? Are they still useful?

8. It is a peculiar fact that so many of America's greatest literary men should have been born within a period of a few years. How many of those listed below were born between 1800 and 1815? In each case the first date is that of the man's birth; the second, that of his death.

Daniel Webster, 1782–1852; Edward Everett, 1794–1865; John G. Palfrey, 1796–1881; William H. Prescott, 1796–1859; George Bancroft, 1800–1891; Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803–1882; Nathaniel Hawthorne, 1804–1864; William G. Simms, 1806–1870; Henry W. Longfellow, 1807–1882; John G. Whittier, 1807–1892; Oliver Wendell Holmes, 1809–1894; Edgar Allan Poe, 1809–1849; Wendell Phillips, 1811–1884; John L. Motley, 1814–1877; James Russell Lowell, 1819–1891; Francis Parkman, 1823–1893.

Make a table which will show how many of the religious life of the before 1800, how many were living in 1840, and how many of them. For living after 1865. Millerites,

9. Explain why writers and artists are so scarce in a new country soon. Can you think of a country in which you would expect to find the today?

10. Bring and arrange a loan exhibition of pictures of all the great writers of this period.

2. How the Idealists gave Americans New Goals to Work For

An idealist is a person who imagines things better than they are and then works to make his idea come true. Many of the people who founded the colonies were idealists: they left Europe because they thought they could make the New World better than the Old. There were always idealists in America, because just as soon as people managed to make one new idea come true, other people urged some other change. But although idealists were always on the scene urging their new ways, or reforms (that is, a reforming, or remaking, of things), they always had a hard time. There were always plenty of people who wanted to leave things as they were. Some could not see that the new ways were any better than the old. Some had money invested in things as they were, and these feared they would lose their money if changes came. Others were afraid of offending the people with money. Others simply did not want to bother with new ways: they had learned the old ways and liked them.

Idealists in Education. We have seen (p. 231) that the Western people believed in education for everyone. This was a startling change; for in Europe and the colonies it was hardly thought suitable for the lower classes to be educated. When free public schools were established, the ideal came very much nearer to being realized. Horace

Mount Holyoke Seminary

Founded in 1837; a pioneer school for the higher education of women

Mann said that teachers should have special training for their work, like ministers or doctors, and so normal schools were established in many states for this purpose. Some people even went so far as to say that there should be free public high schools. This ideal was slow in coming true, although Boston had such a school in 1821, and Philadelphia in 1839.

In the field of higher education a great deal was done. We have seen (p. 232) that many new colleges and state universities were founded before 1860. Now some people even began to say that girls should be as highly educated as boys. In 1821 Emma Willard had established a seminary for girls at Troy, New York, and in 1837 Mary Lyon started a seminary for them at South Hadley, Massachusetts. Some of the newer colleges admitted both men and women; such was Oberlin in 1833 and Antioch in 1853, both in Ohio.

Changing Ideas in Religion. The United States has always been a religious country. In the years before the Civil

War so many new ideas came into the religious life of the country that people were greatly excited about them. For one thing, there were many new sects, such as the Millerites, who said that the end of the world was coming very soon. The Unitarians, a much larger sect, branched off from the Congregationalists about 1825. Thousands of Catholics came in during the thirties and forties, mainly from Germany and Ireland. The Disciples broke away from the Baptist Church under the leadership of Alexander Campbell. The Mormon church was founded by Joseph Smith in New York in 1830, and after many wanderings and adventures the Mormons established a state of their own in Utah in 1847. Truly it was a time of religious remaking.

Applying Christianity. At this time many people were interested in spreading Christianity, and sent missionaries to far-off parts of the United States and to foreign lands. People began also to think that Christianity ought to show itself in kinder treatment of the unhappy and the helpless. They found that prisoners were often kept in rooms so filthy that cattle would seldom be kept in them today, and that whipping and the cutting off of ears were still practiced. Imprisonment for debt was still legal in a number of states. There was a great outcry against these evils, and in a few years they were done away with. Another disgrace was the treatment of deaf-mutes, the blind, and the insane. The insane were treated with special cruelty, being sometimes shut up in dark rooms for months or even years. No attempt was made to cure them, for no one knew how. About 1830 a few people began to study these conditions and to try to find ways to change them for the better.

The Ideal of the Equal Chance. Those people who believed, like Thomas Jefferson, that everyone should have an equal chance to make the most of his life, saw that their ideal

(1) (2) (3)

Styles in Dress during the Forties and Fifties

In the nineteenth century women's fashions were gracious and picturesque but not very healthful. The picture shows wax figures of (1) Mrs. Van Buren, (2) Mrs. Tyler, and (3) Mrs. Fillmore, wearing the actual gowns of the presidents' wives, in the National Museum, Washington

was very far from being realized. Some of them saw that alcohol was the cause of great suffering and trouble and kept many from having happy and successful lives. These people started the temperance movement almost as soon as the nation was born. The first organized society was in Boston in 1826. When they joined this society the members signed a pledge not to drink liquor. The movement grew rapidly and soon spread all over the country. In 1846 Maine passed the first state prohibition law. By 1857 twelve other states had laws against the selling of liquor. But it was difficult to enforce the state laws; most of them were changed and given up; and not until many years later, after a great deal of discussion, was a national prohibition act passed by Congress.

Many women felt that the law did not give them an equal chance with men. They must do whatever their fathers or husbands told them to, even if those men were dishonest or cruel. They had no voice in making the laws under which

they must live. A few brave women who gave lectures in public to aid some good cause were laughed at or even stoned for their boldness. Women were supposed to stay at home and keep house. Some great leaders among the men thought this all wrong, and so did many women. They began to work for better laws. In 1839 the state of Mississippi passed a law which allowed married women to manage their own property, and other states followed in a few years. In 1848 the first woman's-rights convention was held at Seneca Falls, New York. Many others followed. It was a number of years before the ideal of equal rights for women was realized; but the ideal was kept before the people, and they began to think about it.

Abolition. A third inequality seemed to many to be the worst of all. South of Mason and Dixon's line were thousands of human beings who must serve their masters without wages all their lives. They were bought and sold in public markets. They had no equal chance to make their lives as good as other men's. This inequality of slavery led to abolitionism and the Civil War, which we shall study in the next division.

Review and Enrichment

1. Make a "then" and "now" table for education in the eighteen-fifties and at the present day.

Items	Then	Now
a. Buildings		
Size		
How heated		
b. Age of pupils		
c. Subjects		
d. Discipline		
e. Games played		
f. Number of high schools		
g. Number of colleges		

2. Tell for what Horace Mann, Mary Lyon, and Emma Willard are remembered. Read *The Makers of America*, by J. A. Woodburn and T. F. Moran.

3. From the following data make a bar diagram showing the increase in the number of newspapers and magazines between 1810 and 1860:

Date	Number
1810	359
1830	1403
1850	2526
1860	4051

4. Read *The Story of Mary Lyon*, by H. O. Stengel.

5. The itinerant preacher was a great power in shaping the ideas of the United States, especially in the West. Can you find out about his life and work and tell the class the story? Read *The Circuit Rider*, by Edward Eggleston.

6. The story of Francis Asbury, the first Methodist bishop in America, is full of interest. *Francis Asbury*, by H. K. Carroll, is good.

7. After reading about the Mormons in E. E. Sparks's *Expansion of the American People*, pp. 410–416, or "The Mormons," in Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History, trace their wanderings and explain why the valley of Salt Lake was chosen for their final home.

UNIT VIII. THE UNITED STATES IN THE FIFTIES

If we could have taken a long journey over the United States between 1850 and 1860, what should we have noticed? What were the people doing in the Northeast, in the South, and in the West? What should we have seen that was different from earlier days or from today?

1. What were the People Doing in the Northeast?

In the Northeast — from the District of Columbia to the state of Maine — most people still lived in the country, but the cities were growing fast. In New England the farmers were finding it hard to sell their products at a profit in the

cities. The new railroads were bringing farm products from the great fertile farms in the West, where the land was better and food could be raised more cheaply. Hence a great many New Englanders left their farms. Sometimes they went to the West; more often they moved to the city and took up town work.

"Old Beth," America's First Elephant

Hachaliah Bailey brought Old Beth to America and exhibited her all over the country from 1815 to 1827, when she died. This monument was built to her memory at Somers, New York

The Eastern Cities. We already know how fast the East was growing in manufacturing. The new cities made new problems. Both the foreigners and the native Americans were inclined to break the laws. Street fights were common; in some cities there were bands of men who roamed the streets and made life unsafe. Philadelphia and New York were compelled to start a police force before 1850. Before this there had been a few watchmen here and there, without uniforms, whose chief duty was to report fires. When a fire broke out everyone ran and helped to put it out. There were volunteer fire companies, with their own ladders and buckets. Many thieves went to fires to steal what they could from the burning house. Now a few cities began to have paid fire departments. Another new thing was the horse car. Before this the only public means of travel in cities had

been omnibuses. Beginning in New York, tracks were now laid in city streets, and little street cars drawn slowly by horses or mules ran on them. When the cars came to a hill, and especially when they were heavily loaded with passengers, extra horses were hitched on beside the regular ones in order to give them some help.

Labor and Wages. The workers were not very happy in those days. Workmen in New England went to the mill at five in the morning and left at seven at night, with half an hour off for breakfast and perhaps a little more for dinner. Women and children worked the same long hours. Wages were small; the mills were dirty and ill-lighted and dangerous.

2. How the South Looked in the Fifties

City and Country. In our trip through the South between 1850 and 1860 we should have seen few cities. Richmond in Virginia, Charleston in South Carolina, Atlanta in Georgia, New Orleans in Louisiana, Louisville in Kentucky, and Memphis in Tennessee were the chief cities. Otherwise the South was composed of large farms.

We should have seen few factories and not many railroads. The tools which we should have seen in the fields were made in the Northeast or across the Atlantic; so also were the carpets and the furniture in the houses, the dolls which the little girls played with, and the tops which the boys were spinning.

In the fields rice was growing in some places, tobacco in many, and cotton almost everywhere. More than two and a half million bales of cotton were sent to England each year. Whole cities abroad looked to the South for cotton to use in their factories, and several million people depended on these mills for their living. Other enormous amounts were sent to the northeastern part of the United States.

A Southern Mansion

Notice the influence of Greek architecture, as mentioned on page 261. (From "Dixie," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press)

Houses and People. Not many of the people in the South were wealthy. Those who were well-to-do lived in large houses with wide verandas. As a rule the wealthy Southern planter was generous, hospitable, and brave. Perhaps he was a little fonder of a dispute than the average Northeasterner, but at the same time he had traveled more than most people in other parts of the country. He had not had so much education in books as the average man of the Northeast, but he was more accustomed to horses and dogs and to outdoor life. We should have found him interested in his plantation, in his family, and in politics. The poorer classes lived in small rough cabins and grubbed a poor living out of soil which was not fertile enough to grow good crops.

3. What Was Going On in the West?

Life and Culture in the West. Even as late as 1850 the people in the states from Ohio to Iowa lived under hard conditions, especially in the rural districts. In some places the Indian was still to be seen. Farmers were still in debt and trying hard to pay for their land. The distances to towns and markets were great. Men, women, and children worked on the farms from early morning until late at night.

The number of people living in one-room log cabins would have surprised us, although there were, of course, many large frame houses. Furniture was crude; amusements were rough and frequently dangerous; the boys and the young men indulged in frequent fighting in which injury and even death sometimes resulted. The Westerner constantly faced all sorts of dangers. Doctors were few and far between, and there was much suffering. Crude home surgery had often to be practiced when the father or one of the boys cut his foot with the ax or broke his arm while he was felling trees. Malaria ("chills and fever") was common. Most people expected to suffer from it part of the year, and anyone who brought medicine for it was hailed as a bringer of blessings.

The Changing West. The most astonishing thing about the West was the way it was changing. Everywhere people were working with farm machinery, trying to find new ways of doing the work more quickly. Their produce increased accordingly. For instance, in 1838 Chicago sent thirty-nine sacks of wheat to Buffalo; in 1860 it sent twenty thousand bushels of grain eastward on the Great Lakes.

The railroads were opening the West so that the farmer could get his goods to Eastern cities. Elementary schools, colleges, and a few medical schools were being opened. Hence the West was a pioneer section in some places and very much settled in others.

Western Transportation (as posed for a Recent Photograph)

An Indian with his pony, an oxcart, an early stage, and the first train that ran on the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1870. (Copyright by Underwood & Underwood)

In the Far West. West of Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, and Texas lies about half the area of the United States. As early as 1850, population had not yet spread very greatly into this Far West. Indians roamed over the mountains and plains. Buffaloes grazed about in huge herds — hundreds of thousands of animals in a single group.

If we had traveled from St. Louis to San Francisco, we should have met other travelers on the way to the gold fields. We should have seen the Mormons beginning their settlements in Utah. In California we should probably have caught the gold fever and have rushed to the mines with thousands of others. If we had gone through New Mexico we should have seen a few Spanish settlements there. Aside from these, however, and a few other groups of people, we could have roamed over hundreds of thousands of square miles of country without meeting a soul except the Indians.

Before Leaving Division Three

1. Debate one or more of the following subjects:

   a. Resolved, That the War of 1812 could have been avoided.
   b. Resolved, That Jefferson's policies and beliefs were safer guides for the new nation than those of Hamilton.
   c. Resolved, That John Quincy Adams's services to his country were greater than those of his father, John Adams.
   d. Resolved, That the steamboat has done more for the settlement of the United States than the railroad.
   e. Resolved, That the Kansas-Nebraska Act was fair to both North and South. Find out about this act in Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History, "The Kansas-Nebraska Bill."

2. Prepare for notebook and class use

   a. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Three, determined by majority vote of the class. Admit no one who did not make a permanent and valuable gift to American life and character.
   b. A list of twelve important dates between 1789 and 1860, and the event connected with each. Let each member of the class first make a list of twelve. The list for the notebook can be determined through class discussion.
   c. A map, as follows:
      (1) Title: Growth in Territory of Continental United States.
      (2) Use an outline map of the United States.
      (3) Show the original territory; also the Louisiana Purchase, the Florida Purchase, Texas, Oregon, the Mexican cession, and the Gadsden Purchase. Show also the boundary of each state and territory to 1860.
      (4) Locate and name the rivers, mountains, lakes, and cities that you have met in Division Three up to 1860.
      (5) Trace the canals, trails, and roads other than railroads mentioned by name in this division.

3. Be able to do each of these things:

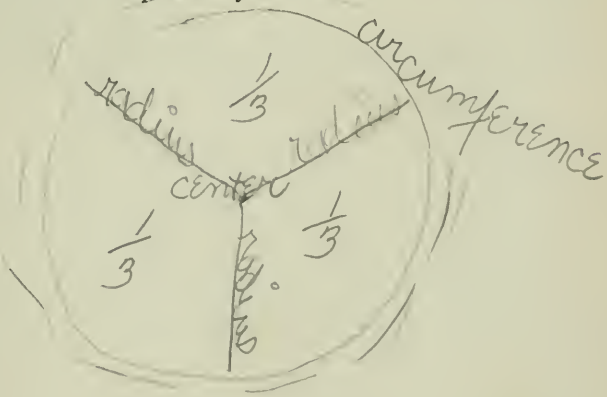
   a. Tell a clear story of any unit in Division Three or all of them.
   b. Identify, in a sentence or two, John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, John Jay, Admiral Perry, William Henry Harrison, Genêt, Captain James Lawrence, General William Hull, Captain Isaac Hull, William H. Crawford, Anthony Wayne, John Marshall, Aaron Burr, Robert Livingston, Francis C. Lowell, Tecumseh, James Robertson, Daniel Boone, Winfield Scott, Daniel Webster, Martin Van Buren, James K. Polk, William

Lloyd Garrison, John Tyler, John C. Calhoun, Samuel F. B. Morse, Elias Howe, Horace Mann, Richard M. Hoe, Charles Goodyear, Mary Lyon, Emma Willard, Sam Houston, Moses Austin.

c. Give a floor talk on, or write a brief discussion of, the following topics:

(1) Means of Travel in the United States in 1830.
(2) Life on a Pioneer Farm.
(3) Going West in 1816.
(4) The Republican Policies of Thomas Jefferson.
(5) The Financial Plans of Alexander Hamilton.
(6) The Effects of the War of 1812 on New England.
(7) The Effects of the Steamboat on the West.
(8) Significant Inventions in the United States between 1789 and 1860.
(9) The Industrial Revolution in England.
(10) The French Revolution.
(11) The Factory System in the United States.
(12) Our Relations with Foreign Countries between 1789 and 1860.

4. Conduct a "round table" on books you have read while studying Division Three. Which do you recommend for others to read? Which did you find most helpful for yourself?



Division Four

The Testing of the Nation, 1860–1865

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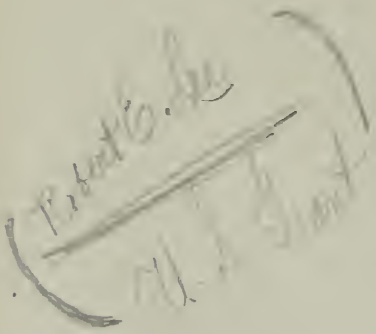
Foreword

In the midst of its growth and development the United States had to stop and settle two great questions, which would not be put aside. The first question was one of justice: Should the Negroes continue to be a subject race, forced to work for the white race by a system of slavery, or should they be made free, and given both the rights and the responsibilities of free men? The second question was one of government: Did supreme power remain with the states when they united under the Constitution, or did it pass from them to the Federal government at Washington?

This division shows, first, how these questions came to push all other questions aside during the fifties; next, how the two great sections of the country, the North and the South, fought a terrible war for what each side thought was right; and, finally, how the two questions were decided by that war.



The Lincoln Family during the Civil War

The smaller boy is Thomas, more often called Tad, who died in 1871 at the age of eighteen. The older one, Robert, served in the army during the Civil War. He was Secretary of War under Garfield and Arthur and minister to Great Britain during President Harrison's time. He died in 1926. There were two other sons: Edward, who died when he was almost four, and William, who died in 1862, at the age of eleven

Two Ten-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

These books will explain and enrich the story in the text and make you realize how thrilling the days of the slavery struggle were. Find as many as you can in the school library or the public library and, by daily reading, put yourself into the places of the people who were alive then.

1. *Brave Deeds of Confederate Soldiers*, by Philip A. Bruce. George W. Jacobs & Company.

Vivid accounts of the gallant and romantic aspects of the Confederate soldiers' characters.

2. *U. S. Grant*, by Lovel Coombs. The Macmillan Company.

An easy-to-read account of Grant's school days, his life at West Point, his early days in the army, and his part in the Mexican and Civil wars.

3. *Recollections of the Civil War*, by Charles A. Dana. D. Appleton and Company.

A first-hand account telling about leaders in Washington and in the field.

4. *The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War*, by John Fiske. Houghton Mifflin Company.

An account of the taking of the great river that was the key to mastery. Written by one of the greatest of American historians.

5. *The Election of Lincoln and the Civil War (1860–1865)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey. Volume VIII of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Tells about the nomination, election, and inauguration of Lincoln and the most important phases of the Civil War. A useful volume for this period.

6. *The Life of Robert E. Lee for Boys and Girls*, by J. G. de Roulhac-Hamilton and Mary Thompson Hamilton. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Much interesting history woven into the story of the life of a sturdy American. The chapters on his life at West Point, his service in Mexico, his life in the army, Appomattox, and his life after the war are excellent for general reference material.

7. *On the Trail of Grant and Lee*, by F. T. Hill. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of the chief events in the lives of two great Americans and the stirring times in which they lived. Interesting from the first page to the last.

8. *Illinois in the Fifties*, by Charles B. Johnson. Flanigan-Pearson Company.

A description of things, conditions, and people as the author saw and knew them. You will enjoy both the reading matter and the pictures.

9. *An Army Boy of the Sixties*, by Alson B. Ostrander. World Book Company.

A clear, vivid, and entertaining account of the life of a soldier during the Civil War.

10. *Boy Scout's Life of Lincoln*, by Ida M. Tarbell. The Macmillan Company.

A life of the central figure of the Civil War period by one of the greatest authorities on his character and work.

II. A Story-Book Library

Here is a group of stories taken from many phases of Civil War times showing how all sorts of people took part in that mighty struggle and helped to decide its outcome.

1. *Stories of the Civil War*, by Albert F. Blaisdell. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Forty-one short stories written in a lively and attractive style. They will interest you.

2. *On the Old Kearsarge*, by Cyrus T. Brady. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The naval battle between the *Alabama* and the *Kearsarge*. A story which is substantially true and historically correct.

3. *The Boy Settlers*, by Noah Brooks. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A story of early times in Kansas. A good picture of life in the West during the fifties.

4. *Civil War Stories retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Thirteen stories dealing with outstanding events of the Civil War. Well illustrated.

5. *Stories of Dixie*, by James W. Nicholson. American Book Company.

Interesting stories of life in the South during the Civil War.

6. *The Boy Settler*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Kansas Territory during the emigrant days.

7. *On the Overland Stage*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Overland stage route from Missouri to Salt Lake, 1861 to 1865.

8. *The Recollections of a Drummer Boy*, by Harry M. Kieffer. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Personal recollections of three years of active service in the field by a Union soldier in the Civil War.

9. *The Youngest Rider, a Story of the Pony Express*, by L. P. Houck. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

The title describes the book.

10. *Memories of my Youth, 1844–1865*, by G. H. Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The story of a boy who had unusual opportunities and made the best of them.

A Southern Plantation. A Southern plantation was a large farm where cotton or tobacco or sugar or rice was grown. Cotton was the most important crop. The amount grown averaged 1,300,000 bales a year from 1831 to 1860. In 1840 the crop was valued at $100,000,000.

The buildings on a large plantation consisted of the house of the owner, the barns and sheds, perhaps a cotton gin, and a row of small cabins for the slaves.

Classes of Slaves. There were two classes of slaves: the house servants and the field hands. The house servants took care of the master's children, did the housework, and performed such work as carpentry and blacksmithing. They were generally devoted to their masters and were much liked by the master and his family. The field hands did the hard work in the cotton or rice fields. Their hours of work were long, from sunrise to sunset, like the hours of Northern factory hands of that time. Some Negroes served as "drivers" and waked the slaves in the morning or drove them to the fields when they were late. Once in the fields, the slaves were directed by white men called overseers, who told them what work to do and saw that they did it.

Plantation work was relieved now and then by amusements. There were dances, and trips once in a while to some neighboring town to see a circus. Possum and coon hunts were common. The Negroes had a natural genius for music, and at their camp meetings and church services sang the beautiful "spirituals," which everyone still enjoys. They played the banjo and the fiddle. Christmas lasted at least a week and was a great holiday.

Discipline on a plantation was usually strict, but punishments depended on the master and overseers. Some were cruel, and their slaves were severely whipped for laziness or disobedience; some were very kind, and their slaves had gentle treatment. Some owners even burned marks on their

Styles of Dress in 1862

From a picture in *Godey's Lady's Book* for April, 1862

slaves when the latter committed some crime. On the other hand, some white people lived all their lives on plantations without seeing a slave so much as whipped. Some slave-owners were almost as fond of their slaves as of their families.

Slaves were bought and sold at auction like any other property. As the demand increased, the price grew higher. In 1800 a strong young man who could work in the cotton fields was worth $200; in 1860 a similar slave would sell at about $1300. The best Southerners did not like to sell their slaves, and especially did not like to break up a family by selling father, mother, and children to different owners. This was sometimes done, however.

Northern Opinion of Slavery. Most Northerners did not much care whether slaves were owned or not, until they were told of the evils that resulted. On January 1, 1831, William Lloyd Garrison started a newspaper called *The Liberator*, the

purpose of which was to end slavery, if possible, at once. Garrison's attack on the South was bitter. He considered every slave-owner a Negro-stealer. He seemed to think that every Southerner owned slaves, that every owner was cruel, and that the slaves were being whipped all the time. At first, even in the North, people disliked Garrison. But, in 1832 antislavery societies began to be formed. Within a few years more and more thousands of people came to agree with Garrison and to hate slavery. They wanted to abolish it, and so were called abolitionists.

Then in 1852 Harriet Beecher Stowe published a story called *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. It described the things that might happen to a slave under a cruel master. The book was read all over the North, and people there had the idea that the things described in the book were everyday events. The North hated slavery more and more, and the South was angry over the exaggerated accounts of the sufferings of slaves.

Southern Opinion of Slavery. Before the invention of the cotton gin many Southerners wished to end slavery. Men like Washington gave freedom to their slaves. As late as 1820 many leading Southerners admitted the evils of the system, but by about 1830 they had changed their minds. They now said that slavery was the best labor system for Negroes, and that it must be right because some of the heroes of the Bible were slaveholders. Whipping was done only when necessary, they said, and slaves were better cared for in sickness and old age than the working classes in the industrial cities and towns of the North.

Moreover, the South felt that freeing the slaves would be a very dangerous thing. Who would feed, clothe, and take care of the slaves if they were freed? Where would they live? Who would work on the plantations? If Garrison should keep on telling the country that the Negroes were being cruelly

William Lloyd Garrison Harriet Beecher Stowe

treated, would not the slaves some day start a revolution? Would they not try to kill their masters? This fear in the South was increased by an event in Virginia in 1831. Led by Nat Turner, some Negroes got together and killed about sixty white people. Soldiers were gathered, and a short battle resulted. Over a hundred Negroes were killed, many were whipped, and some were captured, tried, and hanged. The whole affair naturally frightened Southerners. They blamed Garrison and his Northern supporters for stirring up the slaves.

Thus the struggle grew sharper each year. Many Northerners came to look upon all Southerners as wicked and cruel; many Southerners hated the North because they thought Garrison and his followers were meddling with their ways of living and helping their runaway slaves to escape. By the early fifties some people saw that unless the quarrel could be stopped the two parts of the country would plunge into war and break up the Union.

Review and Project

1. Make a list of influences and conditions that led to the gradual doing away with slavery in the North. Make a list also of those that fastened slavery more and more tightly on the South.

2. Give a floor talk on the topic "A Day on a Southern Plantation." Any workday during the year 1850 will do.

3. Now is the time to read *Uncle Tom's Cabin*; also *The Story of Harriet Beecher Stowe*, by R. B. MacArthur.

4. Radical reformers sometimes injure the cause that they advocate more than they aid it. Discuss William Lloyd Garrison and Harriet Beecher Stowe in this connection.

5. There is a good account of a Virginia tobacco plantation in *Reminiscences of Peace and War*, by Mrs. Roger A. Pryor, chap. xi.

6. "Slavery in the United States," in Marie L. Herdman's *Story of the United States*, chap. liv, will interest you.

2. The Slavery Fight in the Early Fifties

Fugitive Slaves. Slaves were constantly escaping into the North. These and free Negroes were continually being chased by the Southern slave-owners. The law said that Northerners must help to return the fugitives, but the Northerners thought the law was wrong. Moreover, the escaped slaves were so helpless and pathetic that the Northerners could not bear to turn them over to slave-catchers, and so they helped the fugitives to reach Canada. This made the Southerners extremely bitter. Even well-known men — clergymen and others — helped to break the Fugitive Slave Law. There was the case of Anthony Burns, an escaped slave who was captured in Boston. A crowd of whites and Negroes led by a prominent Bostonian tried to break into the courthouse and rescue Burns. When the court declared that he must be returned to his master in Virginia, it was necessary to have a guard of soldiers to prevent a rescue. Business men shut

their stores, houses were draped in black, and fifty thousand people lined the streets while twenty-two companies of soldiers took one lone Negro to the wharf to ship him back to Virginia.

The system of helping runaways to escape in the North was called the "underground railroad," as slaves seemed to be carried off to Canada without anybody's knowing how or when.

Kansas and Nebraska, 1854. Then came a political event that caused an uproar. The Democrats won the election of 1852. The new president, Franklin Pierce, was a Northerner, but he was in sympathy with the South.

In the Senate was an Illinois Democrat named Stephen A. Douglas. Everybody knew him. He was a little man with abilities so great that he was called the "Little Giant." In 1854 he introduced in the Senate a bill to do three things: (1) repeal the antislavery part of the Missouri Compromise (p. 185), (2) open up two new territories, Kansas and Nebraska, and (3) let the settlers in the new territories decide whether they would have slavery or not.

This bill would, of course, make slavery possible in Kansas and Nebraska, where it had been forbidden since 1820. Hence it would be a victory for the South. Pierce agreed with Douglas. There was a long and bitter debate in Congress and all over the North also. Charles Sumner of Massachusetts, Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, and William H. Seward of New York aroused their parts of the country to protest. But it was of no use: the Douglas bill passed. Douglas, however, was viewed in the North as a traitor. Effigies of him were burned in bonfires. Ministers in the churches preached about his wickedness. Many men in the North never as long as they lived forgave Douglas for bringing about the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and the opening of Kansas and Nebraska to slavery.

But Douglas's Kansas-Nebraska Act merely said that the new territories *might* have slavery if they wished: it did not say they *must* have it. Now came the fight to see whether they would have slavery or not.

The Fight for Kansas. Kansas was first opened up for settlement. Proslavery people from Missouri immediately poured over into Kansas to vote that Kansas should be a slaveholding territory. But the North was not ready to let this happen without a fight. Groups of settlers were gathered in New England and elsewhere in the North. They were given food, tools, and rifles and sent out to settle in Kansas and make it a free territory. The two groups — the Missouri proslavery people and the Northern antislavery people — had a small civil war. There was bloodshed and confusion for several years. But when Kansas became a state in 1861, it entered the Union without slavery.[1]

Significant Political Changes, 1854–1856. During the middle fifties the American people were taking their politics seriously. Three important things were occurring:

The Whig party at last broke up. Clay and Webster, its two greatest leaders, had died. More important than that, the party could not decide what to do about slavery. If the party favored slavery, many Northern Whigs would leave it; if it opposed slavery, many Southern Whigs would leave it.

A new party began to form during 1854. Many Northerners were so enraged by the Kansas-Nebraska Act that they held great mass meetings to decide what to do about it. One

[1] While the struggle was going on in Kansas, Senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts made a speech in the Senate. He denounced the South bitterly and made slurring remarks concerning some of the Southern members. Two days later Sumner was sitting alone at his desk in the Senate. A Southerner named Brooks came up behind Sumner and beat him over the head with a cane until he was unconscious. The South looked on Brooks as a hero; the North looked on him as a villain. Both the North and the South were reaching the fighting point.

John C. Frémont James Buchanan

The presidential candidates in 1856. Frémont, "the Pathfinder" (1813–1890), was immensely popular in the North; his discoveries in the Rockies, his abolitionist views, and his part in conquering California, together with his picturesque ways, made many of the people like him. Buchanan (1791–1868), a Pennsylvanian of Scotch descent, had held many public offices. He was a lawyer, a soldier in the War of 1812, a representative in Pennsylvania and at Washington, minister to Russia, a senator, Secretary of State under Polk, and minister to England

was held at Ripon, Wisconsin, and one at Jackson, Michigan. These meetings favored a new party which should oppose slavery. People who supported this idea began to be called Republicans, a name which has been used ever since.

The Democratic party lost strength in the North, because some of its members became Republicans; but it made great gains in the South, because the Southern Whigs began to turn Democrats.

The Election of 1856. In 1856 the Democrats met first in a big convention at Cincinnati. They declared that the people of each territory ought to decide about slavery for themselves. James Buchanan was nominated as their candidate for president.

The Republicans declared that slavery ought to be *forbidden in all the territories.* They nominated John C. Frémont, the man who had been in California at the time of the Mexican War.

The Democrats won, although the Republicans cast a far larger number of votes than was expected. But there were no Republican votes in the South. The Republican party was entirely Northern.

Review and Project

1. You meet five important people for the first time in the paragraphs on Kansas and Nebraska. Get well acquainted with them.

2. Show the relation between the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and the rapid flow of people to Kansas after 1854.

3. Discuss in a brief floor talk the topic "Why the Whig Party Died."

4. Read "The Rescue of Jerry," in L. B. Evans's *America First*, pp. 349–354; also "The Underground Railroad," by Levi Coffin, in *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840–1860)*, pp. 110–115, Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History.

5. Good discussions of the Kansas-Nebraska Act and what took place in Kansas after its passage are found in *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840–1860)*, pp. 144 ff., Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History; in *Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks, chap. xxix; and in *The Story of the United States*, by H. E. Marshall, chap. lxxx. Read one or more of these discussions.

3. The Slavery Fight in the Late Fifties

The Dred Scott Opinion. Just after the election of 1856 the Supreme Court had something to say which unsettled everything.

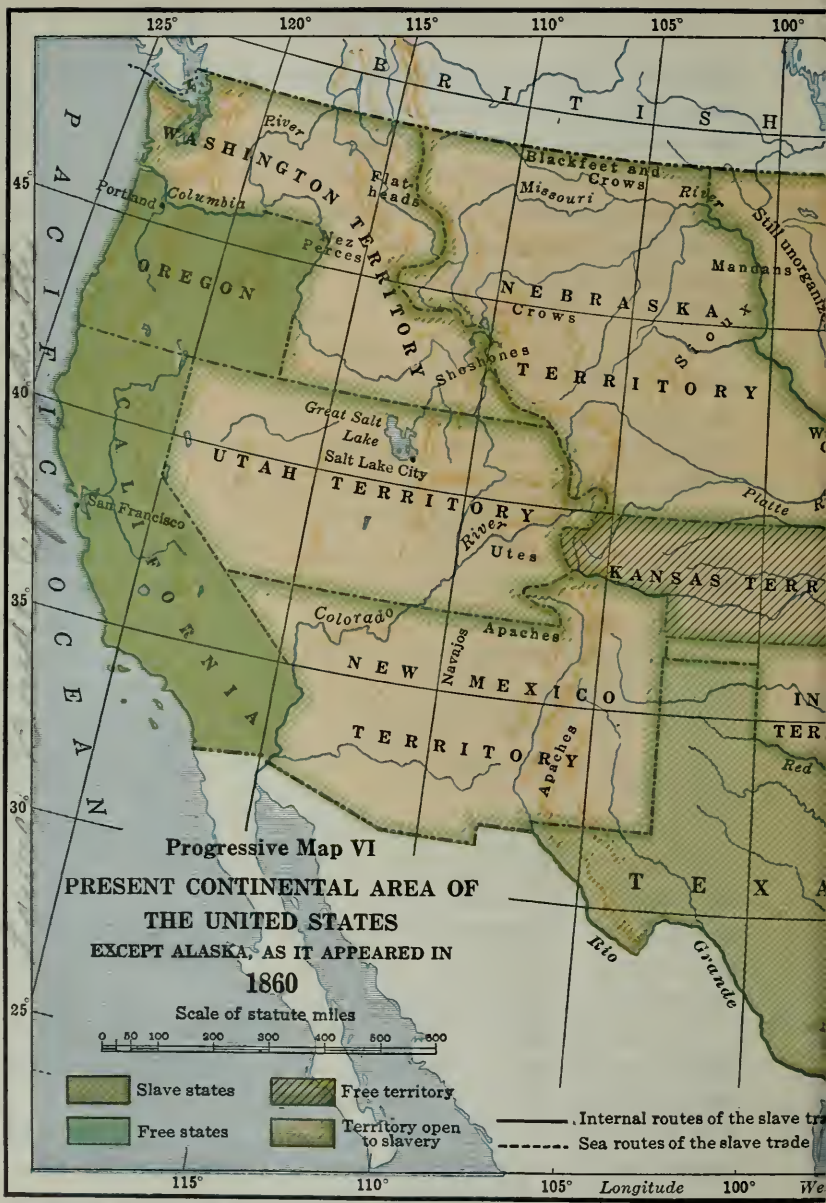
The case which brought out this opinion was as follows: A Missouri slave-owner had taken his slave Dred Scott into

the free territory of Minnesota. Did this make Dred Scott free? The Missouri Compromise had said that slaves could not be held in the Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 30′. Would the court allow the Missouri Compromise to stand? The opinion of the court was that slaves were property and could therefore be taken into free territories and taken out again like any other property. They did not cease to be property. This meant that slavery could not be forbidden in the territories. But the Republican party insisted that slavery *could* and *must* be forbidden in the territories. Hence the opinion aroused the Republicans, and the slavery quarrel became worse than ever. This was in 1857.

The Lincoln-Douglas Debates, 1858. By this time the one question on all tongues was whether slavery should be allowed or forbidden in the territories. Could it be stopped? Would it go into free territories? Could it be carried even into the free states? In Illinois a man named Abraham Lincoln challenged Stephen A. Douglas to debate these questions in meetings all over the state. Lincoln was a shrewd debater with a keen mind, and he wished to be elected senator in place of Douglas. The Little Giant accepted Lincoln's challenge.

Seven great debates were held. Sometimes ten thousand and even twenty thousand people came to them and listened for hours. They came on foot, in carriages, on horseback, or on trains. They brought the whole family and carried food so as to stay all day or even all night, so keen was their interest in this great argument.

Douglas upheld his idea that the people of the territories should be allowed to settle the slavery question for themselves. Lincoln declared that the country could not go on half slave and half free. It must be all one or all the other. Slavery would extend everywhere or freedom would extend everywhere. This was in 1858.



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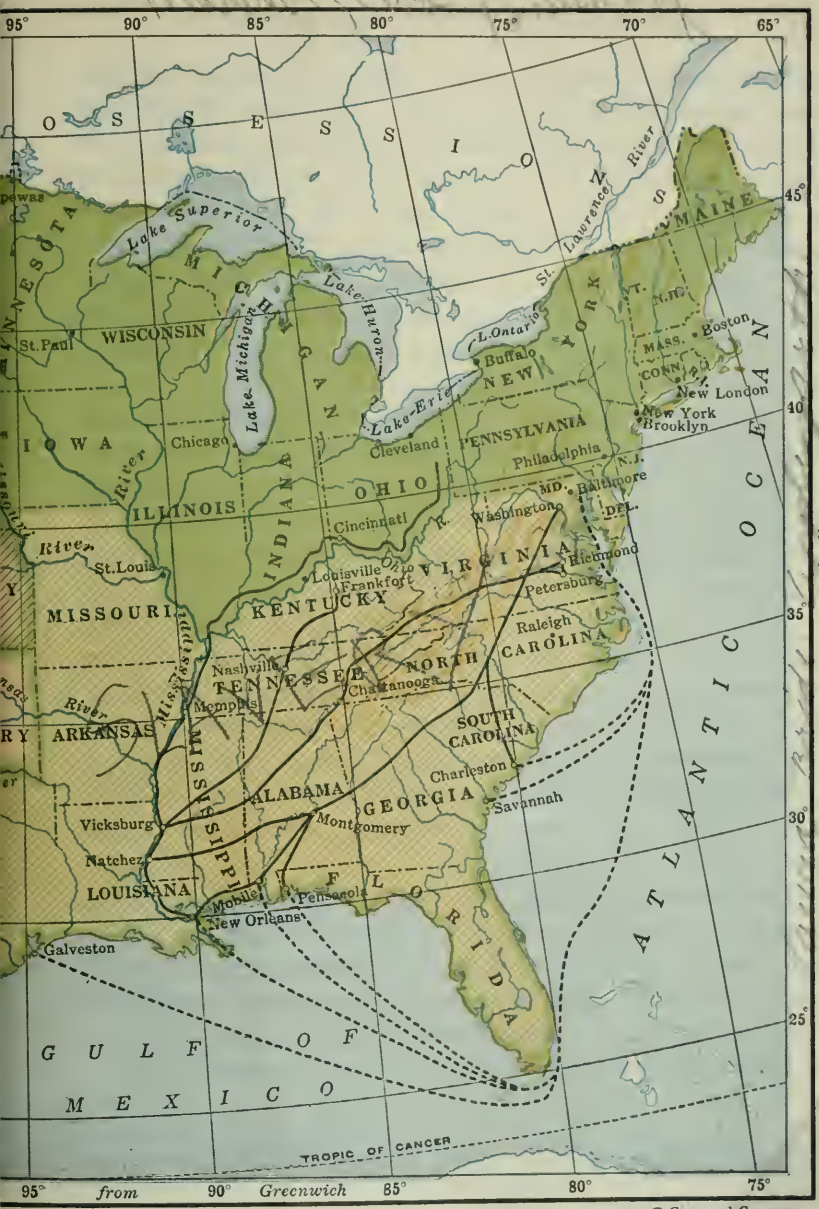

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John Brown, 1859. The next year a Northerner named John Brown thought that he could settle the slavery trouble. His scheme was to collect some money from Northern admirers, with which he bought guns and gunpowder, and to bring together a few men to help him. Then he quietly bought a farm near Harpers Ferry on the Potomac River and brought his men and supplies there. By that time his scheme was apparent. It was to stir up the slaves, give them guns, and help them to start a war against their masters so as to get their freedom.

One night Brown and his men seized Harpers Ferry and began to rouse the slaves about the region. The slaves, however, did not understand the scheme and were not greatly interested. Some troops were sent out to capture Brown. A short fight resulted; Brown was captured, tried for treason, and hanged.

The South was almost stunned by the Brown incident. Here was a Northerner, supported by Northern men and Northern money, going to the South and trying to stir up the slaves to murder their masters in cold blood. Moreover, the South heard that many Northerners approved of Brown's actions and even thought that he was a great hero. Thus John Brown made the slavery quarrel much more bitter.[1]

The Election of 1860. Then came the eventful year 1860, the year for another presidential election. When the Democrats met to nominate a man for the presidency, a bitter wrangle resulted about the position the party should take on slavery. Finally they divided into two groups. The two, with the Republicans, really made three parties:

[1] The feeling between the North and the South was so keen at that time that when Congress met in 1859 it took several weeks even to elect a presiding officer, or Speaker, in the House of Representatives. Each side wanted one of its own men to fill that office.

The Southern Democrats, for the most part, wanted an earnest proslavery man, and they nominated John C. Breckinridge, who believed that the slaves were property and could be taken like other property into the territories.

The Democrats in the middle and Northern states wanted a man who was less active on the slavery question. They nominated Stephen A. Douglas, who believed that the people in each territory should decide the question for themselves. This was the same Douglas who had debated with Lincoln in Illinois.

Meanwhile the Republicans were becoming stronger. When they met to nominate a candidate, they agreed on two points: that a protective tariff should be maintained (this would please some important states, such as Pennsylvania), and that slavery should not be allowed to spread into any more of the territories.

They nominated Abraham Lincoln. This was the same man who had debated against Douglas and had said that the Union could not remain half slave and half free.

A fourth party, the Constitutional Union, avoided any stand on the slavery question, and those who did not know what to think voted that ticket.

Secession! Southern leaders had long feared that an antislavery president would be elected by the North, and now it had come to pass. They had long declared that in such a case the Southern states would leave the Union. Northern leaders had pooh-poohed this as a mere threat; but as soon as Lincoln was elected, the people of South Carolina called a great convention and voted to leave the United States. Then Georgia did the same, and so did Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, Texas, and Louisiana — seven in all. It looked as if the United States of America, the nation that Franklin and Washington had helped to

form and that Hamilton and Webster and Clay and Jackson and Calhoun had loved and served, was going to be cut into two enemy countries.

Review

1. Draw a line down the center of your notebook. Put on the right all the events of 1850–1860 that favored the keeping of slavery, and on the left those that opposed it. Write those that were balanced across the line. How does the balance stand? Does all the class agree as to the placing of each item?

2. In the class make a time line across the blackboard divided into ten sections for the years of this decade. Without aid, put into each year what happened then and the leaders who were before the people.

3. Show how the Dred Scott opinion made matters worse instead of better with respect to slavery in the territories.

Project and Enrichment

1. Before John Brown went to Harpers Ferry he had become known all over the nation. How, and why?

2. Cyrus McCormick is said to have been a "general" who did a great deal to win the Civil War. Who were his soldiers? What was his ammunition? When did his campaign begin?

3. In the presidential election of 1860 Lincoln received in round numbers 1,866,000 votes; Douglas, 1,375,000; Breckinridge, 845,000. Show the results of the election by means of a bar diagram.

4. Read Article III, sect. 3, of the Constitution in Appendix B. Was John Brown a traitor?

5. Read "John Brown at Harpers Ferry," in *Slavery and the Mexican War (1840–1860)*, pp. 177 ff., Volume VII of Great Epochs in American History.

6. Look up and report to the class James Morgan's account of Taylor, Fillmore, and Buchanan in *Our Presidents*.

UNIT II. THE CIVIL WAR

The winter of 1860–1861 was a time of confusion in the United States. State after state was announcing that it was leaving the Union, or "seceding," as the expression was. President Buchanan had only a short time to serve, but he was still in power. Lincoln was not yet in office. Everywhere the question was being asked Has any state the right to leave the Union? Some said one thing, and some said another. There were no preparations for war, because nobody knew just what to do. The whole army amounted to only sixteen thousand men, and a large part of these men were Southerners. Furthermore, senators and representatives were leaving Washington for their home states; Southern military officers were leaving the army; Southern officials in government offices were giving up their duties. A Federal officer might talk today with another officer about preparation for war; tomorrow one of the two men might leave Washington in order to secede with his state.

1. How the War Began

"The Confederate States of America." In February, 1861, there were seven states that had said they were out of the United States for good. They sent men to Montgomery, Alabama, to draw up a constitution for the "Confederate States of America," which was to contain all the states that would secede. They chose a flag and elected Jefferson Davis, a very able senator from Mississippi, to be their president. The constitution was much like that of the United States, with these changes:

There should be no protective tariffs.

There should be no laws against slavery.

The Attack on Fort Sumter. Since the Confederates no longer thought themselves a part of the United States, they

The Interior of Fort Sumter as it appeared after Bombardment

now began to take any United States property, such as ammunition, guns, and forts, that remained in the Southern states. There was a small body of Federal troops in Fort Sumter, on an island in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina. The commander, Robert Anderson, made ready for defense. With his sixty-five men he stayed quietly in the fort while President Buchanan's term ran out and Lincoln was inaugurated on March 4, 1861.[1] The people of South Carolina desired to take Fort Sumter, but they did not want to be

[1] The inauguration of Lincoln was a great event, for no one knew just what the new president would do when he came into power. In his speech that day he said it was his duty to protect United States property but not to use force against the people except when it was necessary to protect property. Lincoln's old rival, Stephen A. Douglas, sat near him at the inauguration. He had put aside his old feelings and did all he could to support Lincoln in holding the Union together. As Lincoln rose to speak he looked about for some place to put his hat. Douglas reached forward and took it and held it during the inauguration address.

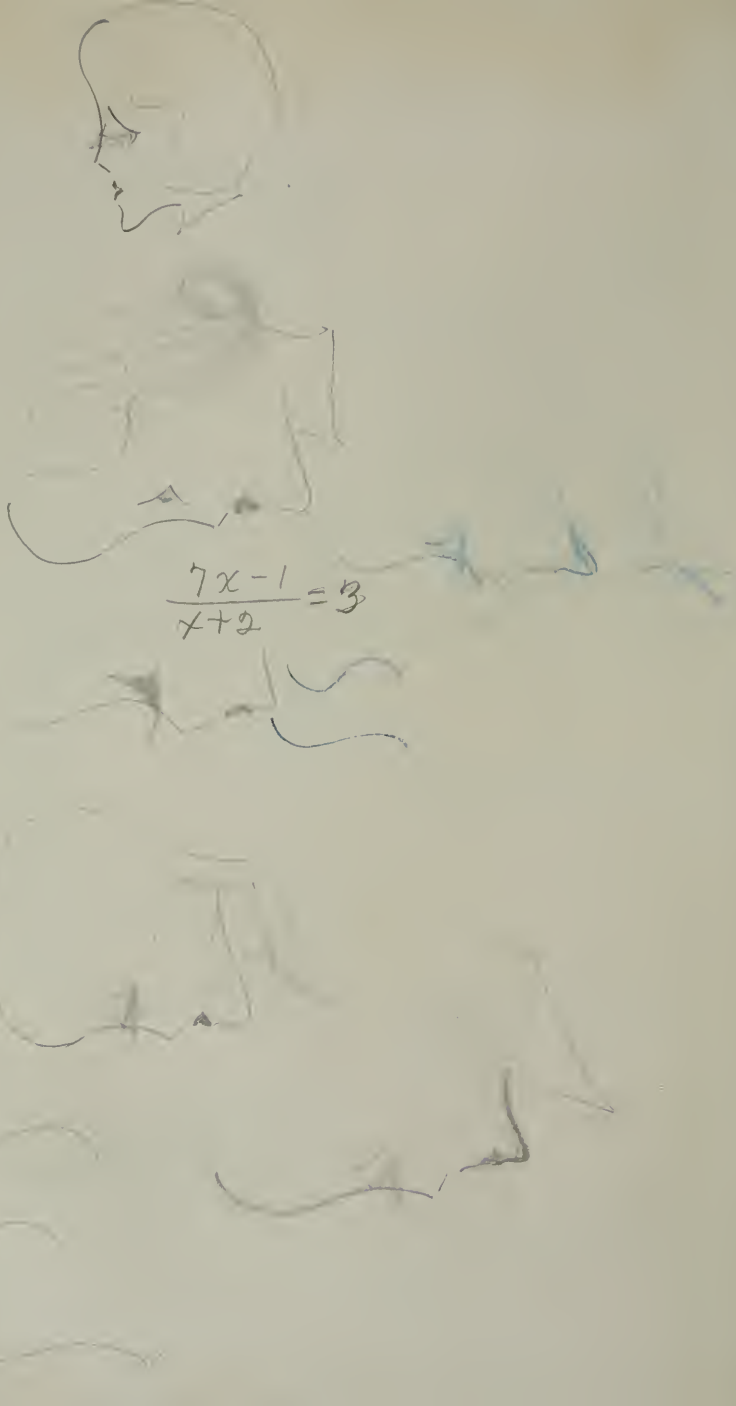
The flag adopted on March 4, 1861, and frequently called the Stars and Bars

The flag carried by General Beauregard. It was most commonly used and was generally known as the Confederate flag

A later flag, which was officially adopted but not commonly used

Another later flag, adopted on February 4, 1865. The red bar was used so that it might not be mistaken for a truce signal

CONFEDERATE FLAGS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A Pony-Express Rider

The pony express was started on April 3, 1860, and kept up until a telegraph line across the mountains in October, 1861, made it unnecessary. Skillful horsemen rode the two thousand miles in eight to ten days

responsible for striking the first blow. But when they heard that Lincoln was sending provisions to Anderson so that he could stay a long time, they decided to take the fort. On April 12 they fired on Sumter from the batteries on the shore. Anderson held out for a day and a half, although he had little ammunition and food. On April 14 he had to surrender.

The news of the attack and surrender flew over the country with lightning speed. On the very next day Lincoln gave orders to raise an army of seventy-five thousand soldiers. In the South the attack on Sumter had the same effect. Troops were gathered, and plans for war were made in earnest. President Davis was a graduate of West Point and a former Secretary of War. He was accustomed to war problems, and he at once called for a hundred thousand men.

The fall of Fort Sumter brought other Southern states to the point of deciding to join the Confederacy. Arkansas, Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee came into the new union, making eleven in all.[1] The population of these eleven states numbered only 9,000,000 (of whom 3,500,000 were slaves), whereas that of the rest of the Union was 22,500,000.

Purpose of the War. The Civil War did not commence with the purpose of ending slavery. Slavery did most to bring about the break between the North and the South; but when the break came, it was over the question of secession. The South said that a dissatisfied state could leave the Union; the North said that it could not. Many people in Virginia and other states near the North did not care about slavery, but they did believe that they had a perfect right to leave the Union if they wished to. When the North tried to keep the seceding states in the Union, these people decided to go with the South. Among them was Robert E. Lee, a graduate of West Point, an experienced soldier and one of the best officers in the army.

The Plan of the North. The Southern states had seceded, and the Federal government was determined to bring them back. Therefore the planning of the war fell to the North; the South waited to see what the North would do, and tried to defeat her schemes. Lincoln and his advisers had four plans for defeating the South and forcing her to return to the Union. They were these:

1. To keep the three "border" states (Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, which were still hesitating) from join-

[1] At the beginning of the war the state of Virginia included what is now West Virginia. The people in that part of the state were so opposed to secession that they formed a separate state, which was admitted to the Union in 1863. There were many who favored the Union side in eastern Tennessee; and many in Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri favored the South. There were also many in the North who opposed the war.

ing the Confederacy. If they too left the Union the seceded states might be strong enough to win their independence.

2. To capture the Mississippi River and the railroad cities upon or near it. This would cut the Confederacy in two, from north to south, and the people west of the river could not send food and ammunition to the fighters east of the river.

3. To capture the capital of the Confederacy and, if possible, its officers and state papers. This would leave its government without a central planning body and bring it to confusion and defeat.

4. To shut up the Confederacy within a wall of ships, making a "blockade," so that no cotton could be sent out from her ports or war supplies brought in. Since the South relied mainly on cotton for her wealth, this would make the Confederacy so poor that it could not carry on war.

Review and Enrichment

1. Tell the story of the formation of the Confederate States of America.

2. Make three lists of the states at the end of 1861. In one list place the slave states that seceded, in another the slave states that did not secede, and in a third the free states.

3. Give a two-minute floor talk on the subject "The Importance of the Attack on Fort Sumter."

4. Make two lists of causes of the Civil War. In one include only events that happened between 1858 and 1861; in the other you may include events and conditions of long standing.

5. Excellent material on the events discussed above is found in *The Election of Lincoln and the Civil War (1860–1865)*, Volume VIII of Great Epochs in American History. Do not miss reading some of this material.

6. James K. Hosmer's *Appeal to Arms*, chap. i, gives an excellent account of the advantages and disadvantages of each side at the opening of the war. Which side had the greater advantages?

2. How the North won the First and Second Objects of the War

The three doubtful states were Maryland, Missouri, and Kentucky. The Federal capital, Washington, lay between Maryland and the Confederacy, and Washington lay within a circle of forts full of guns and soldiers. This, with the influence of her loyal citizens, kept Maryland from seceding. To keep Missouri loyal, Lincoln sent small armies under Frémont and Halleck to that state, and they, with the help of Missouri's loyal citizens, prevented secession there. In Kentucky, Lincoln's patience and wisdom, together with the early campaigns under Grant, had the same effect. So the first object of the Union government was gained: no more states joined the Confederacy.

Lincoln gave to General Ulysses S. Grant the task of capturing the Mississippi and promised him help from the navy. Grant was to go down the Mississippi from Cairo, Illinois, and the naval forces would come up from the river's mouth. At some place on the river the two forces would meet, and the river would be under Union control. Grant began the campaign by capturing Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, which drove the Confederates out of that part of Kentucky and Tennessee.[1] He was helped by Commodore A. H. Foote, who had a fleet of river boats fitted with heavy guns and covered with armor. The gunboats fired from the water and Grant's men from the land side, and thus many victories were won. Grant next pushed the Confederates back to southern Tennessee at Shiloh Church, close to Pittsburg

[1] This does not mean that the Confederates never again held ground in those states. In this short story many battles and even many campaigns have to be omitted. Those who like war history can hunt them up in more advanced and fuller books. But this story tells of all the more important and permanent results.

General Ulysses S. Grant

Grant was a native of Ohio and a graduate of West Point. He served in the Mexican War, but afterwards left the army and lived in Missouri and Illinois. He knew the Mississippi Valley, and so when the Civil War came he was assigned the task of winning the Mississippi. He was a man of few words; but when he started to do anything, he kept at it until it was done. He died in 1885, at the age of sixty-three

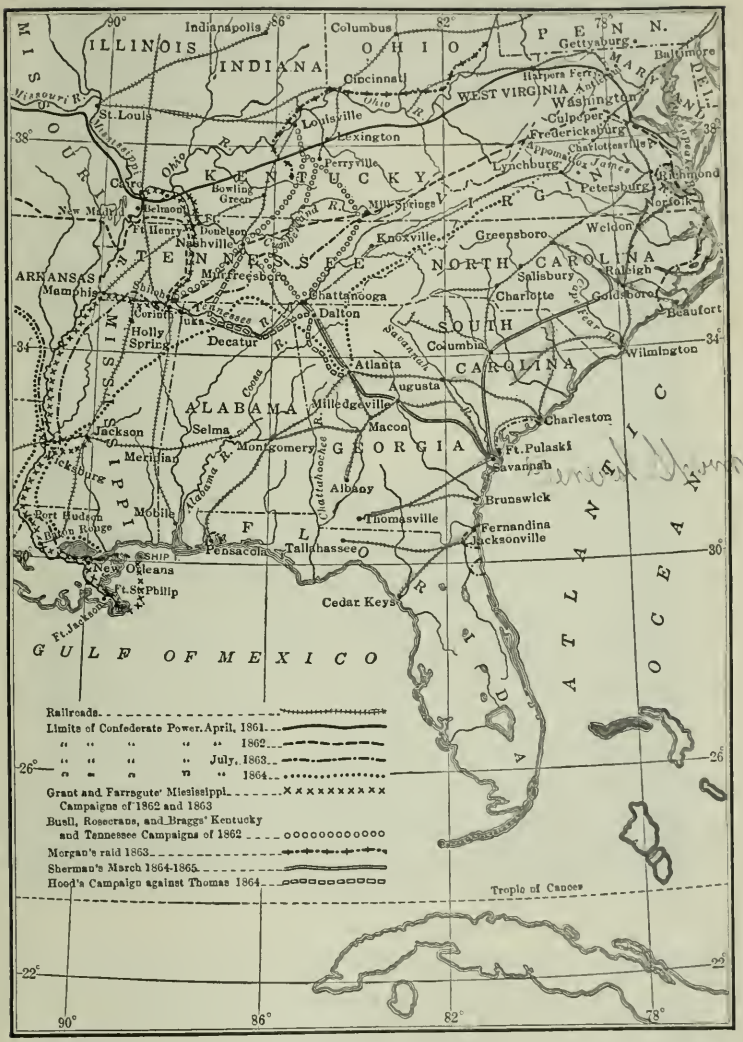
Landing. At that place a great battle was fought on April 6–7, 1862. After that battle the Confederates fell back into Mississippi.

Farragut at New Orleans, April, 1862. While these events were occurring in the upper Mississippi Valley, Admiral David G. Farragut was coming up the river from below.[1] Farragut had been given a big fleet and army and been told to go up the Mississippi and capture New Orleans. Below the city were two forts which protected it. Farragut ran by these in the night and forced the city to surrender.

While Farragut was pressing up the river, Grant was pushing down. By the end of the summer of 1862 Grant had driven the Confederates down as far as Vicksburg, and Farragut had driven them up as far as Port Hudson. But here progress stopped. Between Vicksburg and Port Hudson ran two hundred and fifty miles of Mississippi River. Grant could not get farther down, and Farragut could not get farther up.

During the winter and spring of 1862–1863 nothing of importance was gained by either side. Armies marched here and there and met defeat or victory. Grant, trying month after month to capture Vicksburg, found it impossible. Vicksburg was on a high cliff, and her people were brave and the commanders skillful. Grant's men were on the other side of the river. At last he took them across below the city and led them behind Vicksburg, fighting every step of the way. When he reached the middle of the state of Mississippi, he turned back on Vicksburg and surrounded it. The army and the people in the city became desperate be-

[1] Farragut was the son of a Spaniard. He spent his early life in New Orleans and married in Virginia, where he was living when the war broke out. He went with the North, however, rather than with the South, as Lee did. Farragut was sixty years of age at the time of the battle of New Orleans, but he was in excellent physical condition. It is said that at that time he could turn a handspring and fight with a sword as well as any of his young officers.



The War in the West

cause their food ran out, and on July 4, 1863, they surrendered.[1] In a short time all the Confederate soldiers below Vicksburg were beaten or driven away, so that the North controlled the entire Mississippi River from top to bottom. The Confederacy was thus cut in two. It was the work of a short time to send Union armies out into Mississippi and Tennessee and beat down any bands of Confederates that might be found. Then Grant sent the main part of his army to Chattanooga, in southeastern Tennessee, where there was a considerable Southern army.

Review

1. Tell the story of the war in the West to the end of the summer of 1862.

2. Was the Mississippi River an aid or a hindrance to the Confederacy? Give reasons for your answer.

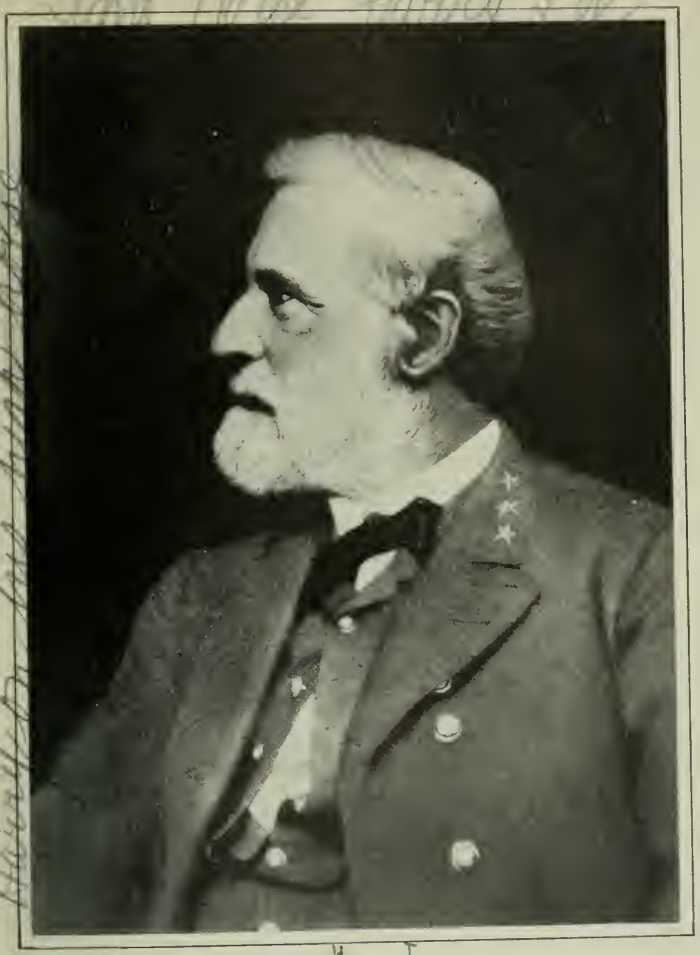
3. Make a list of the reasons the North had for being contented with the progress of the war in the West up to the end of the summer of 1862.

4. List the significant persons and places mentioned in this section that were connected with the early phases of the war in the West.

3. The Earlier Campaigns for Richmond

Of course the Confederates knew that the Federal army would try to capture their capital. Before active fighting began they moved the capital from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia. Richmond lay near the edge of the Confederacy; so that even if it were captured, there would remain a great country behind it which might still be de-

[1] The Union cannon became so dangerous that the people of Vicksburg dug caves in the earth and hid in them. All kinds of animals, even cats, were killed for food. There still exist a few copies of a newspaper printed in the city just before it surrendered. It is printed on wall paper, the supply of news-print paper having given out. There are also many imitations of this last Vicksburg newspaper, printed some years after the war.



General Robert E. Lee

Born in Virginia in 1807, Lee died in 1870. His father was "Light-Horse Harry" Lee of Revolutionary fame. He was educated at West Point and served as an engineer and frontier officer before 1861. He was superintendent of West Point from 1852 to 1855, and became master of Arlington, now the national cemetery near Washington. After the war he became president of Washington College (now Washington and Lee University). His favorite saying was "Duty is the most sublime word in the English language"

fended. Richmond lay only about a hundred miles in a straight line from Washington. The Northern newspapers, which troubled Lincoln and his generals by trying to run the war for them with too much advice and with many complaints, raised the cry "On to Richmond!"

Little did they realize the difficulties in the way. There was, in the first place, a Confederate army, which was well led; then there were swamps, many wide rivers, thick woods, and only a few good roads over which armies could march. Moreover, the Northern army was poorly prepared. Nevertheless the cry of "On to Richmond!" became so strong that the government yielded, and an army was sent.

The First Bull Run, July 21, 1861. Not far from Washington, on a little stream called Bull Run, a Confederate force was posted. A Northern army under General McDowell was sent against it. So sure were the Washington politicians of a quick victory that they went out after the army in wagons and on horses to see the great event. At first it looked as if the North would win when the armies met on July 21, 1861. But General Jackson and his men stood firm (he was called Stonewall Jackson after that day because he stood like a solid wall). Then some reserves were rushed in with a shrill yell against the Federal troops. The Northerners fell back. Then they started for Washington as fast as they could go — soldiers, wagons, horses, and spectators, all in a mob.[1] The results of the battle

[1] Brave as many of these men were — both Confederates and Federals — they were not well enough trained for so hard a task as marching and fighting. Nor were they disciplined like experienced soldiers: they frequently straggled to one side to get a drink of water or to pick some blackberries. On one day the Northern army marched only six miles. It took another day to get the stragglers together again. The men had not become accustomed to carrying muskets, canteens, and the like. Their canteens banged against their bayonets; their tin cups rattled against the butts of their muskets. The weather was hot, and the roads were dusty. Consequently many of the soldiers threw away parts of their equipment and were sorry afterwards.

were important: the South imagined that it would quickly win the war; the North was greatly cast down.

McClellan's Preparation. But the serious business of training a real Northern army had not yet been started. General George B. McClellan, who was an excellent drill-master, was given this task.

McClellan was good at preparing troops for battle. His men liked him. The soldiers were drilled and drilled. A force of artillery was trained, and a force of cavalry begun.[1] Under McClellan's leadership the Army of the Potomac, as his army was called, got into the pink of condition. The summer of 1861 wore on, however, and the fall and winter of 1861–1862, and the army did not move. McClellan's plan was to go down the Potomac with his army and march up the peninsula between the York and James rivers, as soon as he thought his army was well enough trained.

The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. But with this plan McClellan could not move while the enemy controlled Chesapeake Bay. Now the Confederates had taken an old wooden ship, the *Merrimac*, mounted cannon on her, and covered her with iron plates. She was the first "ironclad" vessel, and when she steamed out of Norfolk on March 8, 1862, she ruled the water. The wooden Federal ships shot at her, but their cannon balls rattled off the iron plates like peas blown against a wall. She easily drove her enemies from Hampton Roads, and no one knew what else she might do. But John Ericsson, a Swedish-American scientist, had

[1] In the days before balloons and airplanes, officers often found out about the enemy's movements by sending out cavalrymen. Mounted on swift horses, these men sallied out toward the enemy, observed all that they could, and dashed back to their own lines. The use of balloons began in 1862 and was of great value to the Federal army. Count Zeppelin, who afterwards became famous as the maker of airships in Germany, came to America and served as an army engineer in the Civil War. He made his first ascent in an army balloon while he was in Federal service.

an answer ready. He had built another type of iron vessel, with a deck which was level with the water except for a round box, or turret, in which the guns were placed. The turret revolved, so that the guns could be shot in any direction. On March 9 the *Monitor* sallied forth to fight the great ironclad. The *Monitor* looked ridiculously small as she bobbed about in the waves; the Confederates dubbed her "the Yankee cheese box." There followed a duel between the two ironclads, the first the world had seen, which lasted for nearly four hours. The *Merrimac* was not destroyed, but it was forced back to port and was never seen in battle again. The results were important: (1) the Northern navy was saved from destruction. (2) McClellan sent his troops around by water as he had planned; (3) the United States built a fleet of "monitors," which helped to win the war; (4) the whole world knew that the day of wooden ships was passing and that iron ships would be the rule in the future.

The Peninsular Campaign. Once on the peninsula, McClellan's men, a hundred thousand strong, fought their way to within four miles of Richmond. From April to August, 1862, the fighting went on with no clear result. McClellan was unable to defeat General Lee and his able assistant Stonewall Jackson. The Army of the Potomac was brought back to Washington. Lincoln put General Pope in McClellan's place; but Pope was badly beaten at the second battle of Bull Run, and McClellan was put at the head of the Army of the Potomac again.

Antietam, September 17, 1862. The war had been going on for more than a year, and Lee had generally been successful. He therefore decided to invade the North and possibly frighten the Northern government into stopping the war and letting the South secede. He marched across the Potomac into Maryland and met McClellan at Antietam Creek.

Lincoln in Consultation with his Generals at Antietam

Mathew Brady established a studio for making daguerreotypes in New York City about 1842, soon after the process was discovered. He did very artistic work and became famous in his field. When the Civil War broke out he asked Lincoln if he might take pictures (they were photographs by that time) of the fighters and battlefields. He obtained permission and, it is said, made over thirty-five hundred photographs. He and his men went into every place that the Federal army itself penetrated, risking every danger in order to record the scenes that are now of such historic value. Lincoln is, of course, the tall man at the right wearing a silk hat. McClellan is the shorter man in high boots who is facing Lincoln. (A Brady photograph)

There was a bloody battle, nearly twelve thousand men being killed and wounded on each side. Lee was weakened by the loss of so many men, for his army was much smaller than McClellan's; hence he was unable to go farther into the North and slowly retreated back into Virginia. McClellan did not lift a finger to prevent this; and Lincoln was so disappointed by the failure to pursue Lee's army that he again took McClellan's position away from him, and once more began the search for a winning officer.

Review

1. Provide two small flags, either blue and gray to match the uniforms of the two armies, or actual Confederate and Federal flags. Using the wall map, on which each movement is traced with pointers, let two pupils (each representing the side of the flag he holds) tell in turn the story of the campaign carried on thus far by the two forces. The flags are used to assign sides.

2. Show why the battle of March 9, 1862, between only two ships was an important world event.

3. Give a five-minute floor talk on "The War to Antietam."

Project and Enrichment

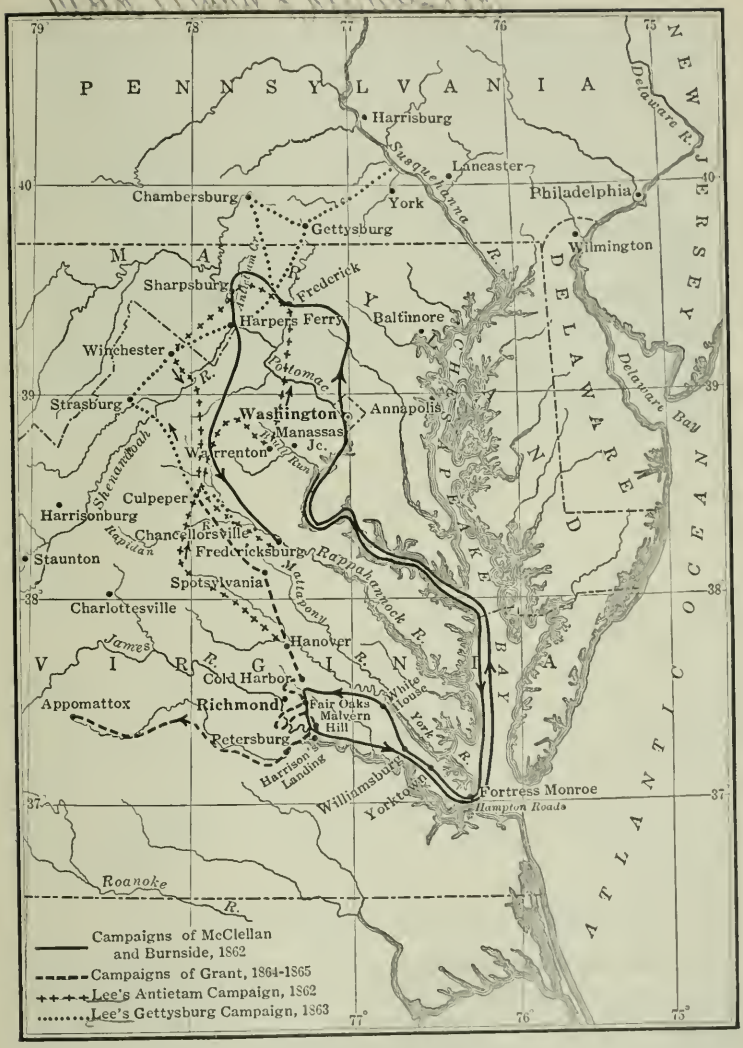
1. Read as fully as time allows from the Day-by-Day Reference Library at the beginning of the division. Come to class each day with at least one interesting side light on the day's main story which you read in this book.

2. What do the words "offensive" and "defensive" mean in warfare? Which generals so far mentioned were on the offensive in their fighting? Which were on the defensive?

3. After reading about him, tell the class the romantic story of John Ericsson and his invention. See Roosevelt and Lodge's *Hero Tales*, pp. 185–195, and A. B. Hart's *Romance of the Civil War*, pp. 352–358.

4. Emancipation and the Blockade

During 1862 many people in the North began to be discouraged about the war. Fighting had been going on for over a year. Thousands upon thousands of lives had been lost. And what was the result? The North was winning in the West; the South was winning in the East. People began to wonder whether it was worth while to fight so costly a war merely to keep the Southern states from seceding. They began to complain that slavery was the real cause of the war. Why not abolish slavery, then?



The War in the East

Lincoln's Attitude toward Slavery. At first Lincoln thought that the war must have no purpose except to hold the Union together. If the North tried to end slavery, such states as Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri would secede. If they seceded the Union would collapse, and there would be no Union and, of course, no chance to end slavery either. Lincoln himself thought that slavery was wrong and that the slaves should be *bought gradually* by the government from their masters and be sent to some such place as Central America.

Only a few people agreed with Lincoln, however. The South wanted to keep the slaves and to secede from the Union. Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri did not wish to secede, *but they wished to keep their slaves.* The abolitionists wished to have the slaves made free at once without paying the owners a single cent. Hence the people kept nagging Lincoln, some urging him to do one thing and some another. Moreover, both England and France were wondering whether they ought not to interfere and stop the war.

Lincoln had by this time decided what to do, but he did not tell the nation until after the battle of Antietam on September 17, 1862. After the battle he gave notice that he would change his policy on January 1, 1863. When that day came he issued a proclamation which contained these points:

Most of the Southern states were still fighting against the Union.

All the slaves in those states should be free.[1]

[1] Sometimes people have thought that the Emancipation Proclamation freed all the slaves. It really did not free any. Slaves held in Union states, such as Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, were not to be freed. In Tennessee and in parts of Virginia and Louisiana the Union armies had control, and no slaves were to be freed there. And, of course, when the South heard that Lincoln had declared their slaves free, she did not let the slaves go. In the first place, most of the slaves did not want to go, and, in the second place, the South still expected to win the war and keep her slaves.

President Lincoln reading the Emancipation Proclamation to his Cabinet on July 22, 1862

From a painting by the American artist Carpenter

The Proclamation of Emancipation changed the purpose of the war from merely keeping the Union together to *both keeping the Union together and abolishing slavery.* Many Northern people who felt that slavery was the real cause of the war now threw themselves into the business of winning it with new vigor.

The Blockade. From the very first, Lincoln had been working on the fourth great object of the North, the shutting in of the South by closing her ports. The Confederates had a long seacoast from Virginia to Texas — 3549 miles. There were many harbors. The Confederates expected to load ships in these harbors with cotton, tobacco, and other products and send them abroad. The cotton and tobacco would be exchanged for all sorts of military supplies, which would be brought back to the Southern ports. Lincoln knew all this; and, to shut off all Southern trade, he placed United

States war vessels all along the coast to prevent any Southern vessels from going in or out. At the beginning he had only twenty-three ships that were of much use. Old ships, however, were repaired as soon as possible, new ones were built, and others were bought wherever they could be found. Whenever a ship was ready for service it was sent down the coast to take its place in the line. The blockade grew tighter and tighter as the months passed.[1]

What Europe thought of the War. Both the blockade and the Emancipation Proclamation had an effect on what the European countries thought about the war. In England the richer people and the government officers generally were opposed to the North. Many important people in both France and England wished to have their countries join hands to stop the Civil War and let the South be independent. The English government went so far as to allow the Confederates to buy military supplies in England and to have ships built in English shipyards. One of these

[1] Before the blockade was tight, an incident occurred known as the "*Trent* affair." It nearly started a war with England. This is the story: Two Confederates were being sent to England and France in an attempt to get help from those countries. They slipped through the blockade on a Confederate vessel for Cuba. There they boarded an English vessel, the *Trent*, bound for England. When the *Trent* was out a short distance a United States gunboat stopped it and took off the two Confederates. Then the *Trent* was allowed to go on. The English were angry that a United States vessel had stopped an English ship and searched her. It looked as if they might declare war. At first the North was delighted over the capture of the two men. But Lincoln was doubtful whether an American vessel had the right to stop an English vessel and take passengers from its deck. Then other people began to remember that we ourselves had always objected to such actions. At the time of the War of 1812 England had stopped our ships on the sea and searched them. We had objected. Now we were doing exactly what we had said England had no right to do; and so the two Confederates were released, and the government made an honorable apology to England.

vessels, the *Alabama*, did a great deal of damage by sinking Northern vessels during the war.[1]

On the other hand, the poorer people of England generally favored the North. This was the more remarkable, because the lack of cotton threw many thousands of them out of work. In spite of their suffering the working people hoped that the North would win; for they thought that if the North were successful, it would put an end to slavery. However, as the war went on, Lincoln kept saying that he did not plan to abolish slavery but only to hold the Union together. Thus the English people became confused and hardly knew what to think.

Napoleon III, who was then ruling France, was even more friendly to the South than were the English government officers. Spain took the same view. Prussia and the Scandinavian countries were friendly to the Federal government. Russia was the most friendly of all, and sent a fleet to call at the ports of New York and San Francisco with friendly messages.

When the Emancipation Proclamation came out, even those countries that were most friendly to the South dared not openly be on her side. They did not want to appear to be on the side of human slavery. From that time there was no fear that any European country would help the South to win independence.

[1] The English law allowed ships to be built for warring countries in her yards, but they could not be furnished with guns and other fighting materials while in England. When the *Alabama* was being built, Charles Francis Adams, the minister to England, objected. He went to the officers, told them the purpose of the ship that was being made, and asked them to stop the building of it. They promised to find out about it, but they were so slow that the ship slipped away and began to capture Northern merchantmen. After the war was over, England admitted that she had done wrong, and paid the United States $15,500,000. This was the *Alabama* claims payment.

5. How the War came to an End

After Antietam, as we have seen, Lee marched back into Virginia, and the Army of the Potomac did almost nothing until late in the next spring. Lincoln tried one general after another as leader of the troops, but they were defeated again and again. Lee won some remarkable victories, although Stonewall Jackson was killed in one of them. Encouraged by his success, Lee decided to march north again. In June, 1863, he crossed the Potomac and moved slowly across Maryland toward Philadelphia.

On June 28 a new general, George G. Meade, was put in charge of the Union army. Meade hastily spread out his forces to protect Pennsylvania. On July 1 part of his army met some of the Confederates at the town of Gettysburg in southern Pennsylvania. There followed two days of hard fighting, each side bringing on all the men it could get. On July 3 Lee decided on a bold stroke: he would hurl fifteen thousand men at the Union line and try to break it in two. It was a desperate chance, but it might succeed.

Meade thought that Lee might attack his center, and he had plenty of artillery there. He was spread out on a long ridge, with the land sloping down in front. If Lee should attempt to send men up that slope, Meade was ready for them. At noon on July 3 all was quiet. At one o'clock two cannon shots were fired by the Confederates, the signal for a terrific cannonade. At three o'clock fifteen thousand men, led by General Pickett, started a full mile across the fields to climb the slope and break the Union line. Then Meade let loose his fire on them. Down fell officers and men in heaps. On went the rest, and again Meade poured in his fire. Human beings could not live under the rain of bullets, no matter how brave they were. About a hundred men reached the top of the slope, but they were too few. All

Little Round Top, on the Battlefield at Gettysburg

The statue is of General G. K. Warren, who saw the importance of Little Round Top and seized it for the Union army. (Copyright by Keystone View Co.)

were killed or captured. Those of Pickett's brave men who were able to do so fell back to the Confederate lines. Three fourths of his men were killed or wounded.

When Pickett fell back the tide of the war was changed. Lee got his men together and slowly went back into Virginia. He was not pursued. Could he be defeated in Virginia? It was clear that the Confederates could not invade the North, but could the Union forces ever reach Richmond?

Effects of the Blockade. In the meantime a force stronger than all the armies was fighting against the South. This force was the *blockade*. Northern ships were now guarding every Southern port. Business stood still. Money became scarcer and scarcer. Machinery and railroad tracks and locomotives and cars wore out and could not be replaced or repaired because the South had always bought such

things from the North or from abroad. The cost of food went higher and higher; clothing was worn into shreds; medicine for the sick could not be had; the army needed cannon and muskets and powder and uniforms and, above all, food. All these could be bought if only cotton could be got to Europe; but there was the blockade! Month after month the Northern warships sailed up and down the Southern coast. In summer and in winter, day and night, in storms and under quiet skies, the blockade grew tighter and tighter. The South could not invade the North — the defeat at Gettysburg had proved that; it could not sell its cotton abroad for supplies for use in winning the war; hence it had to rely on a few factories, mainly in Georgia, which could supply a little equipment. It was not enough, but it was all there was.

Sherman's Famous March. A Northern army was now to be made ready for a march straight into the heart of Georgia.

We have seen that Grant's army was sent to Chattanooga after the surrender of Vicksburg. Grant himself was called to Virginia to see if he could whip Lee. His army at Chattanooga was turned over to General William T. Sherman.

In the spring of 1864 Sherman started down the railroad line from Chattanooga to Atlanta. General Joseph E. Johnston led the Confederates against him, but Johnston had fewer men than Sherman had. Sherman got through to Atlanta in September and captured the city. The factories that made uniforms and other things for the Confederates were burned to the ground, and the cotton which had been stored there was destroyed. Then Sherman marched down toward the coast and captured Savannah. Thus he cut the Confederacy in two from Chattanooga to Savannah, as Grant and Farragut had cut it in two at the Mississippi.

Sherman's successes came just before another election. Until his capture of Atlanta things looked black for the

The Surrender of Lee to Grant

From "Dixie," one of The Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission, Yale University Press

Union. Most Democrats and many Republicans were dissatisfied with Lincoln and the way he carried on the war. It was feared that the Republicans alone could not win the election; and so a ticket was made up of Lincoln as the candidate for president and Andrew Johnson, a Democrat from Tennessee who favored the North, as the candidate for vice president. The Democrats nominated General McClellan. They wanted to stop the war. Sherman's successes and others just at that time convinced so many people that the war should be pushed through to a finish that Lincoln was again elected president in November, 1864.

In February, 1865, Sherman headed north across the Carolinas. A regrettable incident of this march was the burning of Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, on February 17. In North Carolina Sherman was very near

General Joseph E. Johnston. Johnston's army was fast dwindling away, and he could get so few reënforcements that he was in danger of being captured. This was in March, 1865.

Grant in Virginia; the End of the War. We remember that Grant had been called to the East to see if he could defeat Lee. At the very time when Sherman was starting out from Chattanooga, Grant started from Washington across Virginia toward Richmond. He had a hundred and twenty-two thousand men; Lee had about half that number. Grant fought Lee at the Wilderness, at Spottsylvania, and at Cold Harbor. Neither could defeat the other. The losses in dead and wounded were very great; but Grant could get more men, and Lee could not. The Confederacy had used up nearly all the men it had. Still Grant could not get to Richmond.

Then he tried McClellan's old plan of going up the James River. But Lee was in the way at Petersburg. There the two armies stayed. All through the summer and autumn of 1864 and the winter of 1864–1865 neither army could make much headway against the other. Then came the break. Lee's small army was getting smaller, and few reënforcements could be obtained. Early in April he decided to leave Richmond and Petersburg and try to join forces with Joseph E. Johnston before Sherman should capture him; but Grant was quickly on Lee's heels and caught up with him at Appomattox on April 9, 1865. There was no use in further resistance. Lee's army was ragged, hungry, and worn out, and so he gave up. The Confederates were sent home to do their spring plowing. The Civil War was over.

Death of Lincoln. The joy over the ending of the war, however, had not yet died down in the North when President Lincoln was assassinated by an actor in a Washington theater. The news struck the cheers of victory from the lips

The Lincoln Memorial in Washington

It is a curious fact that for many years after Lincoln's death people in general did not seem to understand his greatness nor, indeed, to think much about him. But gradually not only Americans but people all over the world came to feel that he was one of the world's great heroes. This picture shows the memorial built to him by the nation. It was designed by the architect Henry Bacon and stands at the end of a long vista opposite the Capitol. It contains a statue of Lincoln by Daniel Chester French

of the people, for they were just coming to appreciate their leader. While Lincoln was living a great many people had condemned his way of carrying on the war; but now that he was dead, they began slowly to see how patient, wise, and kindly he had been.

Review

1. Using the flags as before, let pairs of pupils representing Northern and Southern forces trace on a wall map the movements of the latter part of the war.

2. Give a floor talk on "The Turning Point of the War."

3. Make lists of those who carried on the war. Arrange in two columns — one for the North and one for the South. What did each man do? How did this contribute to the final result?

4. Hold a class spelling match on the spelling and exact meaning of these words: abolish, abolitionist, proclamation, emancipation, bale (of cotton), cotton gin, overseer, driver, fugitive, underground railroad, effigy, proslavery, antislavery, challenge, secession, campaign, blockade, gunboat, ironclad, monitor, drillmaster, peninsula, assassination.

5. Explain to the class just what the Emancipation Proclamation did.

Project and Enrichment

1. *Resolved*, That Lincoln was wise in keeping the slavery question out of the war as long as he did.

2. Account for the attitude toward the war taken by the different classes of people in England.

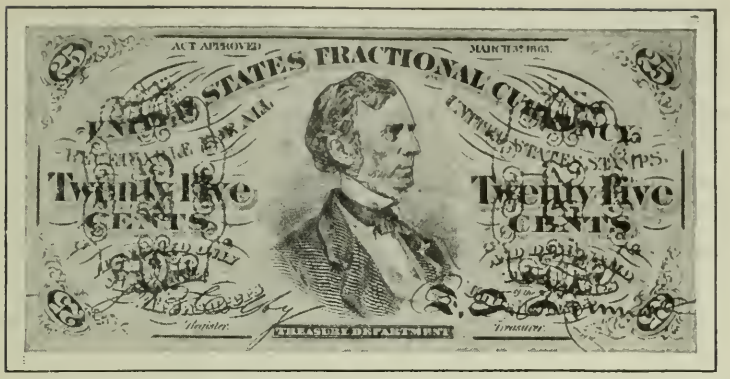
3. Do not miss reading the accounts of Lincoln, Lee, Stonewall Jackson, and Jefferson Davis in *America First*, by L. B. Evans.

4. After a careful review of the facts, give a floor talk entitled "How Four Days changed the Situation in the Civil War." Of course the four days were July 1–4, 1863.

5. Many people think that every citizen should learn Lincoln's Gettysburg Address by heart. Why? Do you agree? Do you know it? When and why was it delivered?

6. What were Some of the Outstanding Effects of the War?

We have been following the fortunes of the men who actually fought the war, but those who stayed at home felt it just as keenly in some ways as those who went into the army. Business in the North was hurt at first, but in the latter part of the war it became very good again. Farming also was hurt at first; but later, owing to good seasons, new farm machinery, and the work of the women and children, it also recovered. In the South, where nearly all the men went to war, and business and farming had to be carried



A Photograph of a Northern "Shinplaster" which is still in Existence

Money was very scarce during the war. The government issued paper money, including twenty-five-cent pieces like the one shown here, which were known as "shinplasters." Postage stamps were also used as money

on by old men, women, and slaves, there was much suffering. The war was fought mainly in the South, and there buildings were burned, railroads were destroyed, and fields went to weeds. When the war was over, the South was in a pitiable condition.

One of the means which the North adopted to help win the war was the national bank system. This was not a central bank with branches in the chief cities, like the earlier national banks that we have studied. Nor did the United States own any of its stock. Instead, the government allowed groups of people to set up banks in any town or city, provided that they purchased United States bonds and stored them in Washington. Then the banks were allowed to issue paper money, with the bonds as security. This system worked so well that it is still in existence; and you may often see paper money, such as five-dollar bills and ten-dollar bills, which has been issued by national banks.

Permanent Gains from the War. In the years 1861–1865 the American nation had gone through a terrible test.

When the war began the nations of Europe openly said that now this American republic, which was trying to exist by the new principle of trusting its people to govern themselves, would be split in two. They said that it was too big to hang together, and that the principles on which it was founded could not work. They expected the Federal government to fail. Then, to their surprise, it did not fail. The Union was preserved. Broken and bleeding from the war, the nation was still one nation. It had been tested, and had stood. From that time there has never been a serious question of breaking the nation into parts; big and different as it is, its citizens know that all the American people must learn to live together in peace and to help one another.

The war settled forever a second question; namely, the labor of the United States is to be free labor. The workers, white or colored, are not to be taken care of by masters, but each man is to be his own master. He must make what he can of his own life. American slavery was at an end, and after the Civil War the colored people must take up the responsibilities long borne by white folk.

The Cost of the War. These were precious gains, but they cost a terrible price. No one knows just what the money cost of the war was, but it has been estimated that it was about $4,750,000,000 for North and South together. This does not include what the states and counties spent nor the cost of pensions ever since. The country is still paying many, many millions of dollars every year on account of the Civil War. It would have been cheaper and better for everybody if the nation could have agreed to pay the South for the slaves and had then set them free.

And the money cost of the war was the very least part of its cost. There was great physical suffering from pains and wounds. For years after the war it was a common sight in towns and cities all over the country to see veterans who

had lost an arm or a leg or who were feeble from disease due to service in the field. More than six hundred thousand men died during the war. Many of those men were the finest in the land — men who, had they lived, would have given much to their country in every kind of service. So the nation lost in education, in business, and in culture more than can be imagined. And the women and children who in this way lost the husbands and fathers on whom they depended paid a terrible price that the war might be won or lost.

Review and Project

1. Make a short outline of the topic "What it cost to save the Union," and fill in with examples that you have found in your reading.

2. Lincoln's Second Inaugural Address ranks with the Gettysburg Address as an English classic. Read it over carefully. What famous motto for all people and times occurs in it?

3. What did your town do in the Civil War? Many of the older people can tell you, even if they were only children then.

4. Bring a national-bank bill to class and read what is printed on it. Who issued the bill? Whose names appear on it?

Before Leaving Division Four

1. Debate one or more of these subjects:
   - *a. Resolved,* That slavery was a good thing for both white and colored people.
   - *b. Resolved,* That the Kansas-Nebraska Act was fair both to North and South.
   - *c. Resolved,* That the blockade did more to defeat the South than the attacks of the Union forces.
2. Prepare for your notebook
   - *a.* A time line of presidential administrations and important events for the period 1820–1865. Write in red the events that had something to do with slavery; write the others in black. What do you find?

b. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Four, made as before.

c. A map, as follows:

(1) Title: The Civil War.

(2) Use an outline map of the eastern part of the United States.

(3) Draw a line around that part of the country in which fighting took place.

(4) Locate and mark the chief ports of the South which were closed by the blockade; the two capitals which were the objects of campaigns; the battles which you consider most important (be able to justify your selection); and lines showing the great marches of McClellan toward Richmond, of Lee toward the North, of Grant down the Mississippi, and of Sherman to Savannah.

3. Be able to do the following things:

a. Tell a straightforward story of the Civil War.

b. Tell why each of the following names should be remembered: Harriet Beecher Stowe, Abraham Lincoln, Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, Stephen A. Douglas, General McClellan, General Sherman, Admiral Farragut, John Brown, William Lloyd Garrison, Jefferson Davis, John C. Calhoun, General Pickett, John Ericsson, Joseph E. Johnston, and Stonewall Jackson.

c. Explain the importance of the following:

(1) The *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*.

(2) The Kansas-Nebraska Act.

(3) The election of Lincoln.

(4) The Emancipation Proclamation.

(5) The fall of Vicksburg.

(6) Lee's surrender.

d. Explain what were the four objects of the fighting of the North, and show on a wall map how these objects were gained.

4. Conduct a "round table" on books read for this division, with a thoughtful criticism of each.

Division Five

Rebuilding the Nation, 1865–1900

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Foreword

In 1865 the people of the United States had just finished the Civil War. They found that it left them with four great problems to solve. In the first place, how could the South, with its old ways of living and producing no longer possible, be remade with free labor so that it would again support its people and help other parts of the world? In the second place, how should the white people of the South be treated? Should they be allowed at once to take their old places in the nation or should they first be punished in some way for a while? Next, what should be done for the freed Negroes? And who should do it — their old masters, or the Northern people who had made them free? Last, what should be done with the Southern states which had formed the Confederacy and tried to be independent? Had they been out of the Union or not? If they had been out, how should they come back?

For a long time the nation struggled to solve these difficult problems. The worst of the fight over them lasted for ten or fifteen years, although to this day the problems are not entirely solved. Then the nation began to look up from the knotty questions of reconstruction, as it was called, and found an army of other problems staring it in the face. The Americans began at once to examine the problems and to work upon them. They found it interesting to see what would happen next; they liked to do new things, in new ways. So the years from 1865 to 1900 became a great era of change, of rebuilding; and when the new century came in, the Americans faced it as a nation quite different from the nation of fifty years before. This division tells about the many changes of this era.

Industrial America after the Civil War

This is a photograph of an industrial scene in Pittsburgh. It typifies the development of manufacturing after the Civil War

Two Twenty-four-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

Are you familiar with any of the twenty-four books listed below? How many of them can you get from your school library or your public library? Secure as many of them as you can for your reference-book shelf while you are studying Division Five.

1. *Grandmother Brown's Hundred Years*, by Harriet Connor Brown. Little, Brown & Company.

Grandmother Brown tells her daughter-in-law about her life from 1827 to 1927, as well as the tales of earlier days told her by her elders. Colorful and realistic.

2. *Life on the Mississippi*, by S. L. Clemens (Mark Twain). Harper & Brothers.

A vivid first-hand description of steamboating on the Mississippi River in the eighteen-seventies.

3. *The Adventures of Buffalo Bill*, by W. F. Cody (Buffalo Bill). Harper & Brothers.

A much-read book. Contains an eyewitness account of the Wild West just after the Civil War.

4. *Fifty Years on the Old Frontier*, by James H. Cook. Yale University Press.

Cook's experiences in Texas, Wyoming, and New Mexico during the seventies and eighties chiefly. Many good pictures.

5. *Tenting on the Plains*, by Elizabeth B. Custer. Harper & Brothers.

Life in Kansas and Texas about 1870.

6. *Boots and Saddles*, by Elizabeth B. Custer. Harper & Brothers.

Life in Dakota as viewed by the wife of General Custer.

7. *The Passing of the Old West*, by H. G. Evarts. Little, Brown & Company.

A well-told story of the vanishing animal life of the West. You will enjoy reading it.

8. *The Pioneer West*, edited by Joseph L. French. Little, Brown & Company.

A picture of the West by those who could say, "All of which I saw and part of which I was."

9. *Six Years with the Texas Rangers*, by J. B. Gillett. Yale University press.

A first-hand account of the Texas Rangers in the early seventies.

10. *The Reconstruction Period (1865–1877)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey, Volume IX of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Accounts of a number of significant events in our history between 1865 and 1877. The assassination and funeral of Lincoln, the capture and death of Booth, the Atlantic cable, the purchase of Alaska, the first railroad across the continent, the panic of 1873, and other topics of equal importance are discussed.

11. *Our Own Recent Times (1877–1911)*, edited by Francis W. Halsey, Volume X of Great Epochs in American History. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Most of this volume deals with events that occurred before 1900. Excellent material on a number of important topics. Contains an index to the ten volumes in the set.

12. *The Bullwhacker*, by W. F. Hooker. World Book Company.

A first-hand account of a kind of Western life that was common in the eighteen-seventies. The experiences of an ox-team driver on the Old Cheyenne, Medicine Bow, and Sidney trails.

13. *The Story of the Cowboy*, by Emerson Hough. D. Appleton and Company.

The title suggests the contents.

14. *The Covered Wagon*, by Emerson Hough. D. Appleton and Company.

The story of the Oregon Trail and of the heroic people who trod and rode it.

15. *The Pioneer Photographer*, by William H. Jackson and H. R. Driggs. World Book Company.

William H. Jackson was a man who appreciated the Far West, and who in the seventies caught the record of its pulsing and meaningful life with his camera. Contains pictures not to be found elsewhere.

16. *Days of the Leaders*, by L. Lamprey. Frederick A. Stokes Company.

Thirty-one stories connected with our history during the years from 1861 to 1898.

17. *From Lincoln to Coolidge*, by A. E. Logie. Lyons and Carnahan.

A collection of seventy-seven interesting historical accounts written by persons of note who lived at the time of the events described.

18. *The Modern World*, by F. S. Marvin. Longmans, Green & Co.

A clear, well-ordered story of what was going on in Europe while the United States was being remade after the Civil War. For good students. Ten maps showing changes in European territory.

19. *The Book of Cowboys*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Aims to tell the true story of the cowboys and cowboy days. Contains thirty-three good pictures.

20. *Ranch Life and the Hunting Trail*, by Theodore Roosevelt. The Century Co.

Roosevelt's word picture of a kind of life that was very common in the West during the twenty years before 1900. He himself lived for a time on a Western ranch.

21. *Buffalo Bill and the Overland Trail*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

An account of life on the Western plains about 1870.

22. *On the Trail of the Immigrant*, by Edward A. Steiner. Fleming H. Revell Company.

What happens to new Americans, and why. A human and fascinating book.

23. *In the Northern Woods of Maine*, by E. E. Thomas. World Book Company.

A word picture of life in the Maine woods about 1875.

24. *Buffalo Days*, by H. W. Wheeler. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

A first-hand account of forty years of life in the West after the Civil War.

II. A Story-Book Library

You will enjoy reading any of the books listed below. Probably you have already read some of them. Tell the class about them if you have. Ask the librarian at the public library to place them on a special shelf for the use of your class while Division Five is being studied.

1. *The Wells Brothers*, by Andy Adams. Houghton Mifflin Company.

A word picture of life in the cattle country in the middle eighties.

2. *The Great Sioux Trail*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

The opening up of the West after the Civil War.

3. *The Last of the Chiefs*, by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

The Sioux campaign and the deeds of General Custer in Montana.

4. *The Master of the Strong Heart*, by E. S. Brooks. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Custer's fights with the Indians. Some excellent illustrations.

5. *On the Trail of the Pioneers*, by J. T. Faris. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc.

Stories of the country west of the Mississippi when that region was a series of frontiers.

6. *Boy Life on the Prairie*, by Hamlin Garland. The Macmillan Company.

An account of the life that Garland himself lived in northern Iowa about 1870.

7. *A Son of the Middle Border*, by Hamlin Garland. The Macmillan Company.

Everyday life in the West during the late eighteen-sixties. Garland's father was the "son" and Iowa the "middle border."

8. *Jack, the Young Cowboy*, by G. B. Grinnell. Frederick A. Stokes Company.

Cowboy life and the cowboy country during the eighties.

9. *Cricket*, by Forrestine C. Hooker. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc.

A tale of the West in the neighborhood of Fort Sill in the seventies.

10. *North of 36*, by Emerson Hough. D. Appleton and Company.

An account of a great cattle drive from Texas north to Kansas during the late sixties.

11. *The Ranch on the Oxhide*, by Henry Inman. The Macmillan Company.

A tale of pioneer days in Kansas.

12. *Black Friday*, by F. S. Isham. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

The panic of 1873, which was caused by the failure of Jay Cooke & Company, is the subject of this story.

13. *Story of my Life*, by Helen Keller. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc.

Another kind of adventure. Helen Keller tells how, without sight or hearing, she learned to understand and appreciate the world.

14. *The Silver Cache of the Pawnee*, by D. Lange. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

A story of the old Santa Fe Trail.

15. *The Quare Women*, by Lucy Furman. Little, Brown & Company.

The delightful story of how a "passel of quare women fotched in from furrin parts" brought new ideas to the mountain folk of Knott County, Kentucky. A book that makes you laugh and cry.

16. *The Making of an American*, by Jacob Riis. The Macmillan Company.

The story of an immigrant boy's experience in finding, understanding, and finally helping America.

17. *Opening the Iron Trail*, by Edwin L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

Experiences of two boys who helped to build the Union and Central Pacific railroads.

18. *On the Plains with Custer*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

The struggle to win pioneer Kansas, Nebraska, and the Dakotas from the Indians.

19. *General Crook and the Fighting Apaches*, by Edwin L. Sabin. J. B. Lippincott Company.

The conquest of the Southwest.

20. *With the Indians in the Rockies*, by James W. Schultz. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Life in the Rocky Mountain region during the eighteen-seventies.

21. *Little Smoke*, by W. O. Stoddard. D. Appleton and Company.

The Indians of the West and Custer's battles with them.

22. *Western Stories retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Good stories of Western life during the seventies and eighties.

23. *Western Frontier Stories retold from St. Nicholas*. The Century Co.

Stories similar to those found in 22 above. You will enjoy them.

24. *Gold-Seeking on the Dalton Trail*, by A. R. Thompson. Little, Brown & Company.

This story centers around the great gold rush to the Klondike in the late nineties.

Division Five

Rebuilding the Nation, 1865–1900

UNIT I. STARTING ANEW AFTER THE CIVIL WAR

For four years the United States had put everything else aside to find out whether the nation could live or not. As we have seen, property and lives had been lost. A large fraction of the people had been forced to change their daily habits of life. Bitter hatreds had been aroused. When the struggle was finished, the southern half of the country especially found itself forced to change many of its ways of making a living and even some of its ways of thinking and acting. Nor was it allowed to work out these great problems by itself. The legislators of the other half of the country, the half that had won the war, believed that they should watch over the changes to be sure that they were wisely made. Some Northern legislators thought that the South should be punished for seceding. These opinions gave rise to all sorts of troubles, both for the South and for the North. The remaking, or Reconstruction, era lasted for many years, and is scarcely over yet; but the political part of it was mainly settled by 1880.

1. A New Way of Living for the South

When the war closed, the most important question for the South was how to make a living. Food was scarce nearly everywhere. Clothing was hard to find, and prices were high. Houses had fallen into decay. The schools were closed. When one of the state universities tried to open in 1865, only a single student came to attend. There were no luxuries, and there were few comforts. People had to be satisfied with a bare living. How badly off the people were may be judged from the words of a man who saw the South just after the war ended:

> Window glass has given way to thin boards, in railway coaches and in the cities. Furniture is marred and broken, and none has been replaced for four years. . . . A complete set of crockery is never seen, and in very few families is there enough to set a table. . . . A set of forks with whole tines is a curiosity. Clocks and watches have nearly all stopped. . . . Hairbrushes and toothbrushes have all worn out; combs are broken. . . . Pins, needles, and thread . . . are very scarce. . . . Even candles, in some cases, have been replaced by a cup of grease in which a piece of cloth is plunged for a wick.[1]

Most of the Southern people were well-nigh penniless after the war and did not have the money to buy the tools and seeds that were needed. Their chief wealth had been in their slaves, and now the slaves were free. What money they had was worthless Confederate paper currency.[2]

There were too few men to do the work. Many of the white men had been killed or wounded in the war. Most of the Negroes objected to settling down to hard work at once; so they roamed about in idleness. Many of them gathered in the towns and cities, where there was more excitement than on the farms.

[1] Quoted in Fleming's *Sequel of Appomattox*, pp. 5–6.

[2] Paper money is worthless unless the bank or government that issues it is recognized as sound.

"The Lost Cause"

This painting, by Henry Mosher, hangs in the home of Dr. Shaler Berry of Newport, Kentucky. It represents the loss and despair of many a soldier when he returned to his old home in 1865. From such conditions as these the South had to be built again into a prosperous and happy land

Hence it became necessary to divide the large farms into small ones. When the owners of large plantations found that they could not till the land themselves, they sold or leased parts of it to men who had no land at all. Sometimes the "share" system was used; that is, a man who had land and money would let somebody cultivate it who had no land. The owner of the land would supply the tools and seeds; the man who had no land would supply the labor. Then, when the crop was harvested, the landowner would take part of it and the laborer the rest. By 1890 the average Southern farm was less than half as large as it was before the war, and instead of a few powerful owners of big plantations, there were many owners or tenants of small farms.

Most of these were whites, but in many cases Negroes began to cultivate land on a small scale.

The South gets a Start. Of course it took time to get the South started. Gradually, however, conditions improved. By 1890 the South was growing more cotton than it had grown before the war and almost as much sugar and rice as it had before 1860. Mills were being built for making cotton cloth; the swift-flowing rivers supplied plenty of water power to turn the wheels. Men and women who could not run farms or did not wish to do so supplied the labor. Even very small children were put to work in the mills. Small manufacturing towns began to grow. In fact, exactly the same thing began to happen that occurred in New England during the War of 1812 and afterwards.

In some parts of the South the people began mining coal and iron. In Florida they began growing fruit, and in Louisiana and Texas they started rice fields. There was plenty of timber for building ships and making boards. The forests produced tar, turpentine, and resin. The South had not recovered from the war by 1890, but it had made a brave start.

Remaking Social Life. Besides having to make their living in a new way, the Southern people had to learn new ways of thinking. Before the war there had been three great classes: the white slaveholders, who were at the top of social life; the white people that had no slaves, who were called "poor whites" and who did not mix socially with the slaveholders; and the slaves themselves. Now there were no slaves: all were free together, and all were very poor together. This meant that the South had to make a new kind of society based on an equal chance to make a living. Now the old ideas lasted a long time. People thought as they always had, but they had to live in a different way. This caused confusion and made it harder for the South to

create its new life. The hardest part of all was that so many people in the North did not understand the problem and blamed the South for making slow progress. They thought the South was trying to make trouble, when it was really trying to get out of trouble.

Review and Projects

1. The North did not suffer from the Civil War as did the South. Give three distinct reasons for this difference.

2. Are there any farmers near your town who farm on the share system? Are their farms large or small? Why do they farm on shares instead of paying a money rent?

3. What did the conditions in the South between 1880 and 1900 prove about the slave system of labor?

4. Why had not the South used her coal, iron, ship timber, lumber, and fruit crops for trade before 1860?

2. What to Do about the Freedmen

The Freedmen. Besides facing the question of earning a living, the South was faced with the question of the Negroes. The Negroes were made free by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, December 18, 1865. This amendment made every slave free in every part of the Union. Some of the Negroes were very happy at this and wandered forth from their old homes to see what freedom was like, but others did not want to leave their masters and stayed with them just as they always had.

Very few Negroes indeed had any idea of what to do. Under slavery they had had no responsibility for doing anything except what they were ordered to do, but after the war they were suddenly forced to look out for themselves. Of course they made mistakes. Some of them refused to work and got their living by stealing. A false rumor went

round that the government was going to give every Negro forty acres of land and a mule. Many Negroes waited about until these gifts should be made. The Southern whites were greatly annoyed by so many thefts and so much loafing when workmen were needed. For these reasons some states passed laws compelling the Negroes to work under a plan like the indentured-servant system of colonial times. The states also fined the Negroes or put them into jail if they became tramps, in order to make them settle down somewhere and work. These laws were called Black Codes, and to people in the North who knew nothing of Southern conditions they seemed very oppressive.

Congress, led by Charles Sumner and Thaddeus Stevens, wanted to help the Negroes. It did two things: it started the Freedmen's Bureau, and it secured the passage of the Fourteenth Amendment. The Freedmen's Bureau was an organization that tried to find work for Negroes, to give them food and clothing, and to advise them; in a word, it acted as a *guardian* over the former slaves. The Fourteenth Amendment gave the rights of citizens to Negroes. But even with this help, the Negroes kept getting into trouble. The trouble came from the fact that neither white people nor colored people had grown used to the working of free labor. But Congress thought that if the Negroes could vote, they could protect themselves from the Black Codes and the injustice of their former masters. In 1870, therefore, it proposed the Fifteenth Amendment, and the people accepted it. This amendment was meant to force the Southern states to let the Negroes vote. Here, again, too much responsibility was placed on the lately freed slaves. The Negroes did not know how to use their powers as citizens. They took the advice of anyone who could make them believe he was their friend. Many corrupt Northern politicians went to the South, won the trust of the Negroes, and led them into

supporting schemes that were very costly and very bad for both Negroes and whites.[1]

Negro Rule. The Northern politicians and the Negro voters made plans to rebuild the railroads, improve the schools, and start industry once more. But neither the Negroes, nor the ignorant, untrained politicians knew how to do these excellent things. Worse than that, many of the politicians and Negroes were dishonest. They put themselves into offices and voted themselves big salaries. Once a member of the House of Representatives in South Carolina sold his vote for $15,000. Judges could be bribed to make decisions in court. In this same state, where conditions were worst, the members of the legislature (four fifths of them were Negroes) voted themselves a restaurant at state expense. There the members ate and drank at their leisure; and when they left to go home they stuffed their pockets with free cigars, and even had food, clothing, and furniture sent to their homes at the state's expense. As a result the debts of the Southern states and their taxes mounted higher and higher. During this period the white men were not allowed to vote unless they had fulfilled many difficult conditions. Even if they voted, the carpetbaggers who reported the elections said that they were outvoted by the Negroes. In this way the Southern white people were kept from having a voice in the government of their own states.

Taking the Negro's Vote Away. Not all these evils were due to dishonest men: some were due to ignorance. Some of the Northerners who went into the South were honest men who really wished to do the South a good turn, but who

[1] These Northern politicians were usually called carpetbaggers. The name originated in the idea that the Northern politicians brought nothing into the South except what they could carry in a carpetbag. A carpetbag was a cheap grade of valise, made of Brussels carpet of a coarse and bright pattern. Southern whites who helped the carpetbaggers were known as "scalawags."

were so ignorant about life in the South that they had no idea how little they knew. But whether they were dishonest or ignorant, the evils resulted just the same. Southern white men became angry and then desperate. For a time they refused to have anything to do with government. But this exactly suited the carpetbaggers, and things became worse than ever. So the Southern white men became Democrats; because the Northern politicians steered the new Negro voters into the Republican party.[1] They began to prevent the Negroes from voting by standing near the voting places and threatening them with injuries. Finally the whites formed a secret society called the Ku-Klux Klan, and went about at night dressed in long white robes and told the Negroes they must stop voting or get hurt. The Northern politicians were forced to go back home. It took years to bring this about, but by 1880 the process was complete. Never since that time have the Southern Negroes had any considerable political power.

Review and Enrichment

1. Turn to the Constitution, Appendix B. Find and read the Thirteenth Amendment. Read also *The Story of Our Constitution*, by E. M. Tappan, chap. xi.

2. Describe the condition of a freed slave in 1865.

3. Show why the Freedmen's Bureau could not solve all the difficulties caused by the Thirteenth Amendment.

4. Read the Fifteenth Amendment. Show how it worked in some places in the South.

5. Explain why the South is still Democratic.

6. Get acquainted with *When the Ku-Klux Klan Rode*, by Eyre Damer.

7. Be sure to read "The Klu-Klux Klan," by D. L. Wilson, in *Progress of a United People* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 16–25.

[1] Since practically all the Southern white men voted for the Democratic party, the South became known as the Solid South.

3. Bringing the Southern States Back into the Union

The theory of Lincoln and many Northerners was that the Southern states had never left the Union, for the reason that they could not. Perhaps this was true; but in any case they did not *seem* to be in the Union when the war ended. The United States courts did not hold sessions in the South. Congressmen from the Southern states were not allowed to sit in Congress to represent their states. The United States mails did not go into the South. Certainly the Southern people did not feel that they were still in the Union. What should be done? Should everybody make believe that no war had ever existed? Or should the South be punished in some way before she had her old privileges again?

The Lincoln-Johnson Plan. President Lincoln had thought about all these questions before he died, and he had a plan ready. When Andrew Johnson became president after Lincoln he adopted Lincoln's ideas. His plan was as follows:

1. To require all Confederates to agree to support the United States from that time on.

2. To require them to agree that slavery must stop.

3. To pardon them for having taken part in the war, let them start state governments again, build up the South, and forget the past.

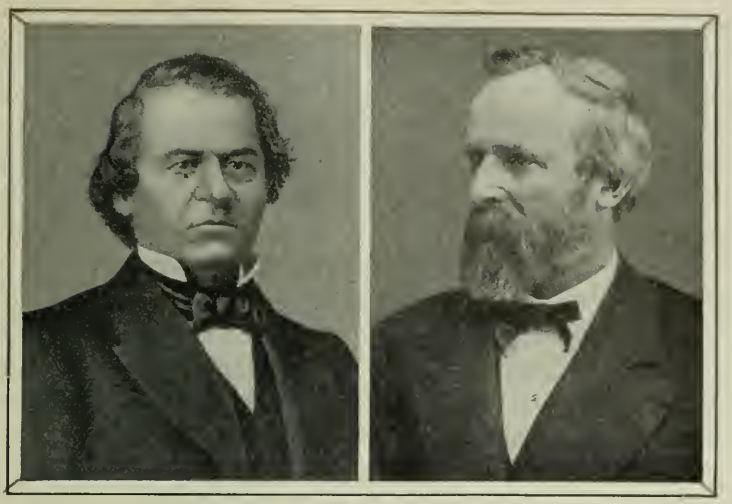
No sooner was this plan known than some people began to object. Many members of Congress thought that a president had no business telling the Southern states what they could do; that, they said, was the privilege of Congress. And many people, both in and out of Congress, thought that the Southerners should be sternly punished for taking part in a rebellion. They thought the Lincoln-Johnson plan too easy and kind.

Charles Sumner of Massachusetts and Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania were the leading Republicans in Congress

then. Johnson was not a likable man, and he fought hard to have his own way. The leaders of Congress were just as stubborn and as set in their ways as Johnson. A bitter quarrel arose between them: Johnson wanted to decide how the South should come back, and Congress, led by Stevens and Sumner, was determined to do this itself. Congress won the fight: it succeeded in carrying out its program for Reconstruction. Moreover, it punished Johnson for daring to disagree with it, by nearly driving him out of the president's chair.[1]

The Plan of Congress. In 1867 Congress passed an important law that set down exactly the things which the South must do to get back. This law, called the Military Reconstruction Act, divided the Southern states into five districts. A Northern general with a body of soldiers was to be stationed in each district. The general could appoint officers in the states, he could have the courts try cases, or he could do away with the courts as he chose. He was to force the Southern states to agree to let the Negroes vote. The states must also agree to the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which put many restrictions on the South. All these things angered the Southern people; but they were not strong enough to fight the generals and the Northern soldiers, and so they had to give in. It was not until 1871, however, that all the Southern states accepted Negro suffrage, agreed to the Fourteenth Amendment, and got back into the Union.

[1] This was done by passing a law which Congress was sure Johnson would not obey, a law, indeed, which was not constitutional. Of course Johnson disobeyed it; and then the House of Representatives accused him of disobeying a law of the United States, which he had sworn to uphold and enforce. This is called "impeaching" (see the Constitution, Article I, Section 2, paragraph 5, and Section 3, paragraphs 6 and 7). The trial took place before the Senate, which acted as judge. Johnson was found not guilty by one vote. Never before or since has a president been treated with so little respect as was Johnson. He was partly to blame, however, because he lacked dignity and self-control.



Andrew Johnson Rutherford B. Hayes

Johnson (1808–1875) was a poor boy who had to support himself and his mother when he should have been in school. He became a tailor, and after he was married his wife taught him to read and write. He was earnest and bright, and people trusted him. He rose from one position to another, until Lincoln made him military governor of Tennessee in 1862. This was because he was faithful to the Union when all his neighbors became Confederates. Both Congress and many of the Northern people thought Johnson's ideas wrong in 1865–1869; but today the general feeling is that his plan of Reconstruction was far better than that of Congress. Hayes (1822–1893) was from Ohio, a graduate of Kenyon College and the Harvard Law School. He served in the Civil War and was governor of his state before being president. He was honest and unselfish. Perhaps his greatest service was his return to the ideas of Lincoln in allowing the South to manage its own affairs

Supremacy of the Federal Government. It was hard for the Southern states, which had for so many years been taught by Calhoun and other leaders that states should be supreme, to bring themselves to do just what the Federal government made them. They could no longer even claim that states are supreme; it was clear to all the world that in actual practice states must obey the national government. There were still many people, both North and South, who believed in states' rights; that is, that states should be their own

masters and not be subject to Federal control. But the Civil War was a great lesson: it taught people that whatever theory they might believe, the practical truth is that the Federal government must be supreme over the states. The states themselves have been prosperous and happy most of the time under this rule; perhaps that is why they now generally accept it.

Northern Politics in Reconstruction Days, 1865-1876. About the time that the quarrel between Congress and President Johnson came to an end, people began to think of General Ulysses S. Grant for president. In 1868 he was chosen over Horatio Seymour, the Democratic candidate, who had been governor of New York.

Political life under President Grant was very bad; in fact, the ten or fifteen years after the Civil War was one of the most corrupt periods in American history. Men seemed determined to grow rich as fast as they could, no matter how dishonest the means might be. In New York City several men, headed by William M. Tweed, got control of the city government and stole millions upon millions of dollars. It was several years before these men could be put out of office and driven from the country or put in jail. Other cities had governments almost as bad. Members of Congress were given money by people who wanted their votes. Tax collectors took bribes for letting favored people fail to pay their taxes. Men even cheated the Indians out of food so that they might add to their own fortunes.

Grant himself was not connected with these evils; he was a simple, honest man. He was, indeed, too simple: he did not know enough about politics and statesmanship to be a good president. He was not a good judge of men for the affairs of peace, although he knew how to judge soldiers. Some of his close friends were dishonest, and some were friendly with dishonest tax officers. And although Grant

himself wanted to be kind and just to the South, he allowed Congress to be very severe in carrying on Reconstruction.

In 1872 the more fair-minded and generous Republicans thought that the South had been punished enough, and that the Lincoln-Johnson plan or something like it should now be used. They nominated Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune*, on what they called the Liberal Republican ticket. The Democrats nominated Greeley also. The regular Republicans nominated Grant again, and he was elected. This encouraged the bribe-takers and cheaters, and Grant's second term was worse than his first. It was so bad that in 1876 the regular Republicans nominated General Rutherford B. Hayes, who did not believe in the sort of Reconstruction that Congress was carrying on. The Democrats chose Samuel J. Tilden, a man who had made a fine record as a reformer in New York. He had fought "Boss" Tweed and had helped to defeat his rule.

Both Hayes and Tilden were able and honest citizens. The election was so close that nobody could tell who was really chosen. Hence a committee of fifteen men was appointed to decide; it was called the Electoral Commission. Eight of the men were Republicans and seven were Democrats. By a vote of eight to seven the commission decided that Hayes was elected.

The Centennial. The Republic was now a hundred years old. It had weathered many storms and had gone through a terrible testing time in the Civil War. It had ended the system of slavery and was starting out now on another century of development. The nation held a birthday party at Philadelphia, where so much of its early history had taken place. This celebration was called the Centennial, and the most interesting thing there was the exhibit of new inventions with which men promised a new and more interesting life for the new century.

Review and Enrichment

1. Explain why the Confederate states were not asked to propose a plan whereby they could get back into the Union.

2. Show how the plan adopted by Congress to get the South back into the Union differed from the Lincoln-Johnson plan.

3. Make a list of military men who were elected to the office of president between 1789 and 1879.

4. Explain Electoral Commission, Military Reconstruction Act, Ku-Klux Klan, Freedmen's Bureau, Black Codes.

5. Read "Why Reconstruction Failed," in *The Reconstruction Period (1865–1877)*, pp. 188 ff., Volume IX of Great Epochs in American History.

6. Now is the time to read James Morgan's treatment of Johnson and Grant in *Our Presidents*, pp. 160–170, 171–185.

7. Suppose that you are a Philadelphia boy or girl making a visit to your cousins in South Carolina in 1870. Write your family a letter telling them what you find.

UNIT II. THE EXPANDING NATION

The nation that celebrated its centennial in 1876 was really very young as nations go. In Europe there were nations that had been nations for several centuries, and kingdoms that had been kingdoms a thousand years. The United States was in its childhood and, of course, was growing very fast. This unit shows why and how and where this fast growth was taking place and some of the new conditions that came from it.

1. The Immigration Problem makes its Appearance

The rapid changes in population show what was going on. In 1900 there were forty-five states and three territories in the Union. Twenty-eight of these increased their population between 1870 and 1900 by at least half a million each.

THE GREAT WEST
IN 1876
Scale of miles
0 50 100 200 300
Indian reservations
W.H. FOUNTNEY CO. BOSTON
Longitude West
125°
120°
115°
110°
45
40
35
PACIFIC OCEAN
WASHINGTON TERRITORY
Organized 1853
OREGON
Admitted 1859
IDAHO TERRITORY
Organized 1863
MONTANA TERRITORY
Organized 1864
WYOMING TERRITORY
Organized
NEVADA
Admitted 1864
UTAH TERRITORY
Organized 1850
COLORADO
Admitted 1850
ARIZONA TERRITORY
Organized 1863
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Organized
MEXICO
DOMINION
Seattle
Olympia
Astoria
Portland
Columbia R.
Ft. Colville
Spokane R.
Snake R.
Nez Perces
Flatheads
Ft. Benton
Gros Ventres, Piegans, Blackfeet and River Crows
Helena
Bozeman
Virginia City
Mountain Crows
Salem
Boise City
Shoshones
Bannocks
Shoshones
Ft. Bridger
Salt Lake City
Central Pacific R.R.
Union Pacific R.R.
Humboldt
Sacramento
Virginia City
Carson City
San Francisco
Sierra Nevada Mts.
Confederated Ute Indian Reservation
Colorado R.
Navahoes
Los Angeles
San Bernardino
Ft. Mohave
Santa Fe
Albuquerque
San Diego
Colorado R.
Gila R.
Tucson
Chiricahua Indian Reservation
Rio Grande
El P
Missclen Apaches

105°
100°
95°
90°
50°
45°
40°
35°
O N O F C A N A D A
Black Feet,
Ft.Union
Missouri R.
Ft.Berthold
DAKOTA
TERRITORY
Arikarees
Mandans
Gros Ventres
Bismarck
NORTHERN PACIFIC R.R.
Duluth
L. SUPERIOR
NORTHERN BUFFALO RANGE
Sioux
Organized 1861
Indian
Reservation
Crows
MINNESOTA
Mississippi R.
St.Paul
WISCONSIN
Milwaukee
L. MICHIGAN
Madison
Sioux City
Winnebago
Omahas
NEBRASKA
I O W A
Chicago
Cheyenne City
Admitted 1867
PACIFIC R.R.
Omaha
Platte R.
Ft.Kearney
Lincoln
ILLINOIS
Denver
Atchison
Kansas City
St.Louis
KANSAS PACIFIC R.R.
Topeka
Lawrence
Jefferson City
Ft.Lyon
1876
K A N S A S
Admitted 1861
MISSOURI
Arkansas R.
TOPEKA
Osages
various small tribes
Cherokees
Ohio R.
PUBLIC LANDS
INDIAN
TERRITORY
Ft.Union
Arapahoes & Cheyennes
Kiowas & Comanches
Creeks
SOUTHERN
Unorganized
Choctaws
Chickasaws
Red R.
Arkansas R.
ARKANSAS
Little Rock
TENN.
BUFFALO RANGE
Mississippi R.
MISSISSIPPI
Vicksburg
LA.
Sabine R.
Red R.
Natchez
T E X A S
from Greenwich
100°
95°
90°

Immigrants from Poland

This picture is from a photograph taken when immigration was far greater than it is now and the steerage of ships often contained many hundreds of citizens-to-be. At that time Ellis Island, in New York Harbor, was crowded with incomers, who were examined there and then sent on by government officers to live with their relatives or friends

Thirteen of the twenty-eight received at least a million each. New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Texas, which increased most quickly, each received about two thirds as many new people as there were in the entire United States when Washington became president. All this means that the same inflow of people into the United States that we saw going on in earlier days was taking place after the Civil War.

The Immigrants and where they Settled. Many millions of the new people of America were immigrants from foreign countries. When famines occurred in Europe and business was good in America, more immigrants left home for the New World; when business was poor in the United States, then fewer came. Yet large numbers arrived every

year, whatever the conditions. The steamship companies advertised widely all over Europe and gave low rates to immigrants in order to persuade people to come. The smallest immigration during one year between 1870 and 1900 was 141,857 in 1877; the largest immigration during one year was 788,992 in 1882. Every year from 1870 to 1900, therefore, immigrants were coming to the United States by the hundred thousand. So great was the stream that by 1900 one third of all the white people in the United States were either foreign-born or had parents one or both of whom were foreigners.

For the most part the immigrants *did not settle in the South.* Many of them settled in the East, especially in the cities. The Irish, for example, frequently found work in the factories of Massachusetts and New York. The Jews settled almost entirely in the Eastern cities, and built up a great ready-made clothing industry there. The Germans more often went to the farms of Illinois, Wisconsin, and other Middle Western states. The Swedes and Norwegians went to Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, and even farther west. They, like the Germans, took up farming.

The Change in Immigration. Besides growing in amount, immigration changed in another way. *Before 1882* most of the immigrants were from Germany, the British Isles, and the Scandinavian Peninsula; that is, they came from northern and western Europe. Most of them, of course, landed in the Eastern states. These states thought it wise to be careful about letting so many new and strange people in, and hence passed laws to control the immigration. This was in the forties, fifties, and later.

After 1882 the immigrants began to come increasingly from Italy, Austria, and Russia; that is, from southern and eastern Europe. The people of this New Migration, as it was called, were very different in their ideas from those

who had founded the nation and from the Old Migration that had come earlier. It was harder for them to live and think like Americans. The Americans found that the state laws did not prevent the immigrants from coming: they simply landed in another state, and the problem remained. So in 1882 Congress passed the first national immigration laws. One of these laws made the immigrants pay a tax when they entered the country. At first the tax was fifty cents a person, but later it was increased. This law also forbade objectionable people, such as criminals and diseased and insane people, to enter the United States at all. The second law forbade the immigration of Chinese laborers. This law, with some changes, has been in force ever since.

Immigration and the Homestead Act. We have seen that the government had become more and more generous with its land since 1789 (p. 232) and that some people were even asking it to give land to those who would settle on the land and make it into a farm. In 1862 Congress decided that the time had come to do this. Hence the Homestead Act was passed. This law provided that a head of a family might claim one hundred and sixty acres; that he must actually occupy the land for five years, and then it became his.

The ease with which good land could be obtained in the American West was a great temptation to the poor European farmer, who could not pay the cost of a farm at home; hence he looked with longing eyes to America and came when he could. A man who lived in the West at this time said: "Trains swarming with immigrants from every country of the world were haltingly creeping out upon the level lands. Norwegians, Swedes, Danes, Scotchmen, Englishmen, and Russians all mingled in this flood of land-seekers rolling toward the sundown plain."

The Immigrant's Part in American Life. Immigration has brought great dangers, as well as advantages.

Disadvantages. Sometimes immigrants collected in communities or neighborhoods and lived together without becoming Americans. They did not learn the English language, they did not take any interest in American government, and they did not take up American ways of living. Many of them were unwilling to obey American laws.

Many of the immigrants were poor and had no skill in any trade or occupation; therefore they had to accept low wages and live in crowded houses in unhealthful surroundings.

Advantages. On the other hand, the work of the immigrants was needed. They did a great share of the work in the cotton and woolen mills, the iron and steel factories, the clothing shops, and other places. About this time many cities were laying sewers and water pipes and paving their streets. Much of this hard work, if not most of it, was done by immigrants.

Many immigrants have become useful citizens. Sometimes they or their children have held high offices, such as governors of states, members of the cabinet, and the like. Some have become leading authors, musicians, artists, educators, and business men.

Review and Project

1. Find on a map of Europe all the countries from which you know that immigrants came during 1865–1900. From how many of these countries did immigrants come to your town or neighborhood?

2. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to show the trend in immigration between 1865 and 1900.

Five-Year Periods	Total Immigrants in Round Numbers
1866–1870	1,510,000
1871–1875	1,720,000
1876–1880	1,080,000
1881–1885	2,970,000
1886–1890	2,270,000
1891–1895	2,280,000
1896–1900	1,560,000

3. Make a list of four important reasons for the heavy flow of immigrants into the United States during the eighteen-eighties and eighteen-nineties.

4. Discuss in a brief floor talk the good and bad phases of the heavy immigration to the United States between 1865 and 1900.

5. Let each pupil report all the countries from which his own ancestors came. Write the names of the countries on the board and put a mark after each one for each pupil whose family came therefrom. Now make a bar diagram to show the make-up of the class. What do you find?

6. *Resolved*, That the land given away under the Homestead Act should have been kept and sold at a good price, which would have made it possible for the government to reduce taxes.

2. The Growth of the Cities

Now, for the first time in the nation's history, the cities were so many and so large that they had a notable effect on the living and thinking of the people. It is necessary, therefore, to study these cities so as to understand what this influence was.

Where are the Fast-Growing Cities? More cities are to be found in the northeastern part of the country than anywhere else. Fewest cities have grown in the South and in the Rocky Mountain states, yet in both these sections the cities have grown faster than the country districts. Everybody knows of cities in his own state which have grown rapidly. The following lists show some of the cities in the various parts of the country which grew more than 85 per cent during the ten years from 1890 to 1900.

I. In the Northeast

Everett (Massachusetts)
Mount Vernon (New York)
Bronx Borough (of New York City)
Atlantic City (New Jersey)
Passaic (New Jersey)
Perth Amboy (New Jersey)
New Castle (Pennsylvania)

II. In the Mississippi Valley

Lorain (Ohio)
East St. Louis (Illinois)
Green Bay (Wisconsin)
Superior (Wisconsin)
Joplin (Missouri)
South Omaha (Nebraska)
Oklahoma City (Oklahoma)

III. In the Mountain and Far-Western States

Colorado Springs (Colorado)	Pasadena (California)
Butte (Montana)	Portland (Oregon)
Berkeley (California)	Seattle (Washington)
Los Angeles (California)	Spokane (Washington)

Behold the Skyscraper! Before the cities were so large their buildings were only a few stories high; but when people began to pour in, land became more and more costly. Therefore the buildings went up, since they could not spread out. They became taller and taller. Elevators first came into use about 1868.

Two dangers then appeared: if the buildings were made of wood, there was great danger of fire, and, besides, the lower walls had to be very thick to hold up a tall building. Even brick was not strong enough for the tallest buildings. About 1890 the builders in Chicago and New York began steel-skeleton construction. This means that the frame of the building is made of steel beams which bear nearly all the weight. The brick walls merely cover the steel and hold the windows and doors. In this way such a building as the Woolworth Building in New York is made seven hundred and sixty feet high.

As the population of the cities grew, it was found that there were not nearly houses enough to hold the people. To solve this problem, dwellings known as apartment houses began to be built in the United States soon after the Civil War. They were copied after similar buildings in Europe, but were more convenient. They were huge buildings that combined many houses under one roof, story on story. About 1880 some American apartment houses began to have elevators and electric lights. Some were made fireproof. All the apartments were heated from a central heating plant in the basement, hot water was brought to all the apartments from a heater below, and bathtubs began to be more com-

Wall Street, New York, about 1880 and about 1927

This is the money center of the United States. On and around it are the Stock Exchange and the offices of many great financial concerns, both American and foreign. Count the stories in the buildings. What difference is there between 1880 and 1927? At the end of the street stands old Trinity Church, built in 1839–1846, with its churchyard about it. Here Alexander Hamilton and other famous Americans are buried. Today Trinity stands guard among the skyscrapers like a little old mother watching her sons, now grown far taller than she

mon than before; in short, the modern comfortable and convenient apartment house came into being. Such comforts explain why many people were ready to live in the city and forsake the country home, where water had to be pumped from a well and carried into the house, where fuel had to be cut in the woods and piled up in the woodshed, and where the house might be freezing cold in the morning until somebody got up and started a fire.

More attention was also paid to public buildings, such as city halls, courthouses, libraries, and churches. Monuments were set up in many a village and town to do honor

to the soldiers and sailors who took part in the Civil War. It was not a time of great beauty in such things, and many of these monuments are now thought to be lacking in artistic taste. A beginning was made, however, and the artistic quality gradually improved as time went on.

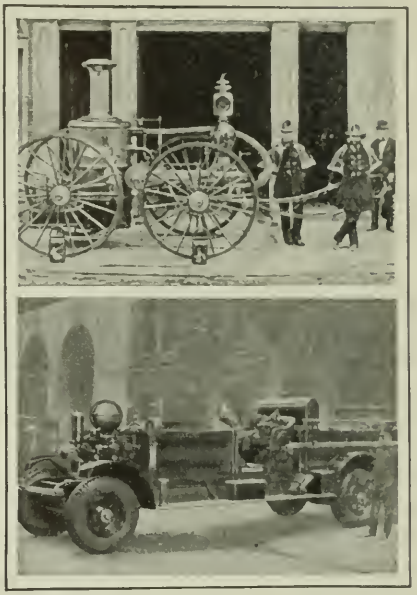
The Woolworth Building, New York, a Modern Skyscraper

Copyright by Wurts Brothers

During the same time (from 1865 to 1900) many cities set aside land for public parks. Among the first were Prospect Park in Brooklyn and Central Park in New York City, which were started just after the Civil War. Philadelphia made a great garden of Fairmount Park on the Wissahickon, and Chicago made Lincoln Park for its North Side and Jackson Park for its South Side. Boston has, in its Common, the oldest park of all, and the Southern cities have many beautiful public gardens, which for the most part were made toward the close of the century. Many people who had inherited old private gardens of great beauty opened them for public use in this period.

Police and Fire Departments. In the mid-century period police and fire departments were started. In earlier times American towns and cities had no policemen, although there were watchmen who stood guard in the city at night. Their chief duty was to watch for fire. There were usually

no guards by day; if anyone made a disturbance, people called the mayor or a marshal to take him in charge. There was rarely any trouble, for most people were working too hard to create trouble. As the night guards usually worked by day, they often slept at their posts at night; and as they wore no uniforms, people could not quickly find them in time of need.



Old and New Fire-fighting Equipment

Both these pictures are actual photographs. The upper engine was drawn by hand, and the pumping was done by steam. The only lights were the small oil lanterns which are shown in front on the ground. The lower picture shows a modern fire engine driven by a gasoline motor. The pumping is done by a high-power engine

Between 1830 and 1860, however, there were many riots and fights in the cities. Gangs, such as the "Rats" in Philadelphia and the "Bowery Boys" in New York, stole and burned property, and injured or even killed people. Sometimes thousands of people took part in the fights. It became necessary to have a regular police force both night and day: men who would have no other work to do, and men who wore uniforms. Philadelphia started its police force in the thirties; New York sometime in the forties.

Before the Civil War, fires were put out by companies of young men who were not in the employ of the city at all. Such a group would form a club, buy some hose and ladders, and go to a fire when they felt like it. Occasionally such

clubs set fires to try their skill; sometimes different clubs fell to fighting one another on the way to a fire and forgot all about the fire itself; and sometimes they even let the fire burn and stole everything that could be carried off from the burning building.

In 1871 there was a frightful fire in Chicago, and another in Boston in 1872. Millions of dollars' worth of property and scores of lives were lost. Cities began to wonder how they could prevent such losses. Cincinnati had led the way to a change in 1853, when she bought fire engines with city money and had all the firemen hired and paid by the city. This plan worked so well that in a few years other cities were doing the same thing. Firemen were city servants; they were put into uniforms, and they were trained to use the apparatus in putting out fires. Thus the modern fire departments began.

Review and Project

1. Counting as cities all places of twenty-five hundred or more inhabitants, 29.5 per cent of the people in the United States in 1880 lived in cities and 70.5 per cent in the country. In 1900 there were 40.5 per cent living in cities and 59.5 per cent in the country. Make a bar diagram to show these changes.

2. Locate on a map some of the cities mentioned on pages 355–356. Find out if you can why some of these cities grew so rapidly during the ten years from 1890 to 1900.

3. Make a list of the changes in buildings in cities between 1868 and 1900.

4. Give a floor talk on the beginnings of the modern police and fire departments.

5. When was the first park in your town or city begun? How was this beginning made? What are the uses of public parks? Do country communities need them?

3. How Cities Influenced American Life

New Interests and New Ways. Now that so many people were living in cities the talk of the people was about different things. When most of the people were farmers, they talked about the weather, the crops, what Congress was doing at Washington, and what the minister said in his last sermon. But city people talked about their city politics, about the latest fashion in the shops, about the last big party, and about the book that everyone was reading. Some of these new interests found their way to the country, of course, and so the cities widened the interests of the American people. The cities introduced new ways as well. City people had different mealtimes, for instance; the dinner hour now began to be shifted to evening. When people gave a party it was not a quilting party or husking bee, but a reception or a card party or a dinner. The life of the wealthy was now much like that of wealthy people in Europe. In the winter there was the opera, and in the summer there was travel, yachting, or the race course. Such summer resorts as Saratoga and Newport had a great influence on social manners and customs.

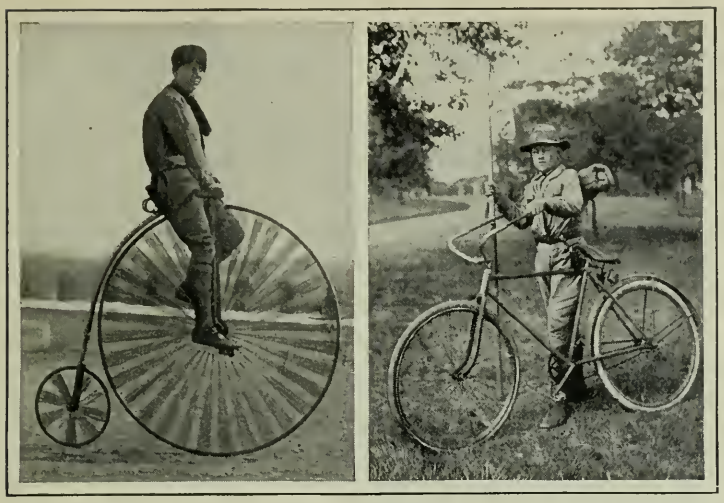
In the matter of amusements there was a great change. When nearly all boys and girls lived on farms they did not need more physical exercise than they got by working in the fields and doing the chores. They had little time for games and sports. But the people who worked in offices and stores and factories all day felt the need of fresh air and exercise. And since their work was often not interesting, they also wanted to be amused. For them, as well as for people in the country, P. T. Barnum brought together his famous circus and went from town to town and even to Europe; William F. Cody, generally known as "Buffalo Bill," gathered Indians, cowboys, ponies, and rifles, and

traveled about with a "Wild West Show"; the National Baseball League was started in 1876, and the American League in 1882. Baseball became common, tennis was started, and every high school and college had its football, baseball, and track teams.[1] Athletic clubs were organized. Minstrel shows and plays went from the cities to the "opera houses" of the smaller towns.

Another result of the growth of cities was that more people began to take vacations. When nearly everybody lived on farms, they could not go away or stop work for a week, two weeks, or a month in the summer. The crops were growing then, and the farmer was busier than ever. Things were different in the city. Factories and stores and offices could allow a few men at a time to take a vacation. More and more people went for a short time in the summer to the seashore or to the mountains or to a lake, or into the country, where their parents and grandparents had lived. So this peculiar change came about. If you had asked any

[1] Everybody who is interested in athletics will see the importance of a great athletic meet in New York in 1895. The London Athletic Club and the New York Athletic Club agreed to have a track meet at New York. Each club collected all the best runners and jumpers in its country. Since this was the first great international contest of its kind, it shows just how much progress had been made in the early years of such sport in America. The United States won every event. The events and records made were as follows:

Half-mile run, 1 minute 53⅖ seconds (world's record; that is, nobody had ever run a half mile as fast as this before)
100-yard dash, 9⅘ seconds (equaling world's record)
High jump, 6 feet 5⅝ inches (world's record)
1-mile run, 4 minutes 18⅕ seconds
220-yard dash, 21⅗ seconds (world's record)
Putting the shot, 43 feet 5 inches
120-yard hurdle, 15⅖ seconds
Throwing the hammer, 137 feet 5½ inches
440-yard run, 49 seconds
Running broad jump, 22 feet 6 inches
3-mile run, 15 minutes 36⅕ seconds.



Types of the Bicycle

Men tried for several centuries to make bicycles before they invented the high-wheel sort shown in the first picture. It was used about 1870, but was never widely popular in America. The second, or "safety," type, was introduced in England about 1880 and in the United States about 1885. Bicycling became a rage in the nineties, then died away as motor cars became more common. In 1900 there were 312 plants making bicycles; by 1905 there were only 101. (Copyright by Underwood & Underwood)

man in 1865 whether he was going to take his vacation at the seashore or in the mountains, he would scarcely have known what you meant, but by 1900 the idea of taking a vacation had become common.

Some Complaints about the Cities. The rapidly growing cities brought about many evils, as well as good effects. Among the complaints made about American cities between 1865 and 1900 were these:

Poor Police and Fire Departments. The police and fire protection were often very poor. Both departments were gradually improved during the seventies, eighties, and nineties.

Dishonest Public Officers. The men who ran the cities were often very dishonest and stole the money of the people to build up fortunes for themselves. Some blamed the immigrants for this, since many of the politicians came from that class; but the people of the old stock (as those were called whose ancestors had been longer in America) were to blame as well, for they had often neglected the city government while they worked to become rich in business. Unfortunately, dishonesty was not confined to any one class of people.

Tenement Houses. In some cities the tenement houses were built so fast and so poorly that once in a while they fell to pieces even before the buildings were finished. Often old houses that had once been good were divided into many small rooms and used for tenements. Usually these houses were ill-ventilated, even having some rooms with no windows, and they were seldom safe from fire. Very often the people were packed in so closely that contagious diseases spread among them very rapidly. Conditions were especially bad among workers in steel mills and in the ready-made-clothing trades.

Health Conditions. One of the worst things about the cities was the danger to health. Many cities took their drinking-water from rivers and lakes into which other cities dumped their sewage and other refuse; as a result, there were epidemics of typhoid fever. Impure milk was sold in the cities, and diseased meat and other harmful things. In New York City in 1865 it was said that one neighborhood had a slaughterhouse where cattle were killed, six tripe establishments, and several other similar factories. The air in the neighborhood was so bad as to be almost unbreathable.

What was Done about these Evils? Unfortunately not all these things have been done away with everywhere even now, but by 1900 many of them had been taken care of in most cities.

1. Men who wished to be in the police and fire departments were compelled to take examinations so that the best men might be picked. Those who were chosen were then taught how to do their work well.

2. Some of the dishonest public officers were driven from office.

3. Laws were passed to prevent builders from putting up unsafe buildings. Other laws told just how much window space and air space the buildings must have, and provided for fire protection.

4. Cities built reservoirs and took care that all streams flowing into them should contain only pure water. Efforts were made to see that farmers sold only pure milk. In many places slaughterhouses were compelled to move outside the town limits. More and more the people demanded that streets be kept cleaner.

After the Day's Work, in the Seventies

How do this man's dress and appearance differ from those common today? How does the room differ? (Photograph by Clifton Johnson)

The result of all this was that people found out how one person's way of living affects all the other people in his town or city. They found that some people will not live in a clean, healthful way unless they are forced to. They learned how to act together, for now cities were doing what once people had done for themselves. What is called community spirit grew up in the best of the towns and cities.

Review and Enrichment

1. Name some of the famous circuses that are yet in existence.

2. Find the present world records for the events in the track meet held in New York in 1895. See the World Almanac for the current year.

3. Show how the cities in the nineties influenced the everyday life of the people living in them.

4. Study the second picture of Wall Street on page 357. Can you think of any reasons for such high buildings? What new inventions were necessary before such buildings could be constructed?

5. *Resolved*, That the rapid growth of cities in the eighteen-eighties and eighteen-nineties had more evil effects than good ones. Speak for three minutes on either side of the question.

6. Are any of the problems that troubled cities in the eighties and nineties still troubling people now? What is being done about it?

4. How the Middle West Filled Up

Migration to the Middle West. The migration to the Middle West which was noticed before 1860 continued after 1865. Hundreds of thousands of people went to the older states such as Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Kentucky, Tennessee, and to the southern Mississippi Valley. And they went still farther west. The population of Iowa, which had been admitted as a state in 1846, increased fast after 1865; so also did that of Minnesota, Kansas, and Nebraska. A tremendous area of prairie land which had been called Dakota Territory was divided into two parts. These were admitted in 1889 as North Dakota and South Dakota. There was still room for many more people in the West, as most of the states were larger than all New England. North Dakota, for example, was more than eight times as large as Massachusetts, but its population in the year 1900 was scarcely more than half that of Boston.

The Indian of the Seventies as he appeared in the Cattle Country

Copyright by E. M. Newman

But because there were not many people between Missouri and the Rocky Mountains, those people saw some interesting things which will never again be seen in the United States except in pictures.

A View of the Great Plains. The map following page 350 shows the Great Plains. The plains were bounded on the west by the Rockies, on the north by Canada, on the east by the settled parts of Iowa, Missouri, and Arkansas, and on the south by the settlements in Texas. Their size is hard to imagine even for one who has traveled across them. So big was this unsettled country that if it were stretched out like a long straight path or highway ten miles wide it would go *nearly four times round the earth.*

The prairie was a great grass-covered country. It was flat for the most part, with few trees and not a great many

rivers. In the parts where there was plenty of rain the grass was high — reaching to a pony's nose. It was dotted with the yellow of the wild sunflower, the blue of the larkspur, and the pink of the wild rose. Where rain was scarce the grass was poorer and the ground was frequently covered with a dusty gray shrub called sagebrush. In summer the heat was intense; in winter the north winds blew cruelly down across the plains toward Texas.

Indians, Buffaloes, Cattlemen, and Cattle. When settlers began to move out on the plains after 1865, they found the Indians already there, having been given land by the government. There were the Sioux in Dakota, the Blackfeet and the Crows in Montana, the Cheyennes in Wyoming, the Navajos in New Mexico and Arizona, and others scattered here and there between. There were also the buffaloes — millions of them. These splendid animals roamed over the plains in huge herds, hundreds of thousands in a herd, munching the grass. The Indians killed them for meat and used the hides for clothing and for protection from the weather. Here and there, too, were thieves, who made a living by stealing the possessions of travelers who went across the plains in stagecoaches or in wagons or on horseback. In 1863 a railroad was started to run between Omaha and San Francisco. It was finished in 1869, when the last spike was driven near Ogden, in Utah.

If we could have crossed the plains in 1865, however, we should have seen something besides Indians, buffaloes, thieves, travelers, and workmen building the railroad. For there were the cattlemen — the cowboys — with their herds of cattle and their ponies. And thereby hangs a story.

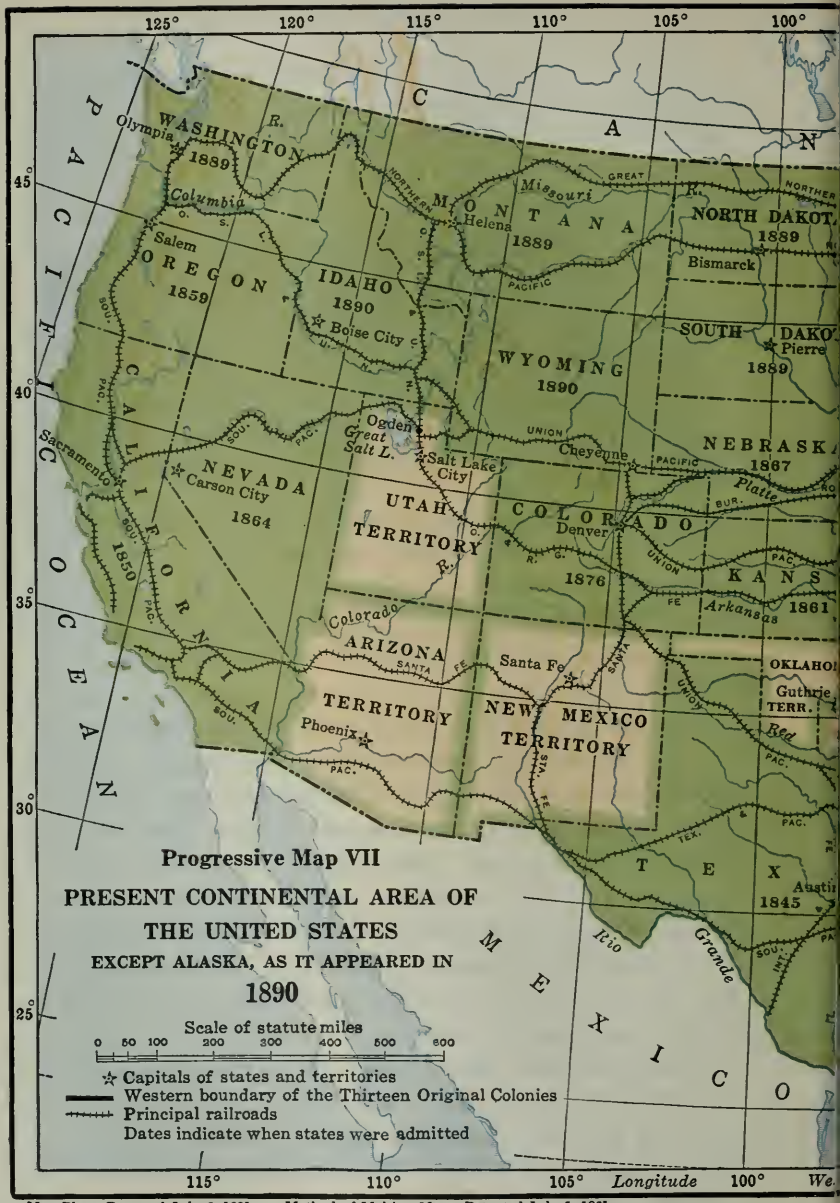
Roaming about on the huge open plains of Texas and New Mexico were large numbers of wild cattle. They had come over the Rio Grande from Mexico years before. They would be a splendid supply of meat if they could only be

A Type of the Temporary Home built at the Time of the Western Migration during the Seventies and Eighties

Frontiersmen must make their houses of whatever is at hand. This is a sod house, made of blocks of earth with turf, and patched about the door and windows with a little timber and lathing. Such houses were sometimes very warm and comfortable. Note the old "buckboard" and the stovepipe chimney

brought to Eastern cities, where the people lived who needed it. And so cowboys in Texas began collecting the wild cattle into herds; then they drove the herds across the hot, dry plains, hundreds of miles, to some point on the new railroad which was being built across toward the mountains. This was the "long drive." When they reached the cattle town on the railroad, they shipped the steers and cows to Omaha or Kansas City or Chicago, to be killed for meat. Then the cowboy called upon his strong little pony to carry him back south to get another herd.

The Settler and the Cattleman. If settlers were pouring out on the plains to build towns and farms, how could great herds of buffaloes roam about the country? How could Indians hunt their game? How could cowboys drive herds of cattle across to the railroad towns? The answer is that



Progressive Map VII

PRESENT CONTINENTAL AREA OF THE UNITED STATES

EXCEPT ALASKA, AS IT APPEARED IN

1890

Scale of statute miles

0 50 100 200 300 400 500 600

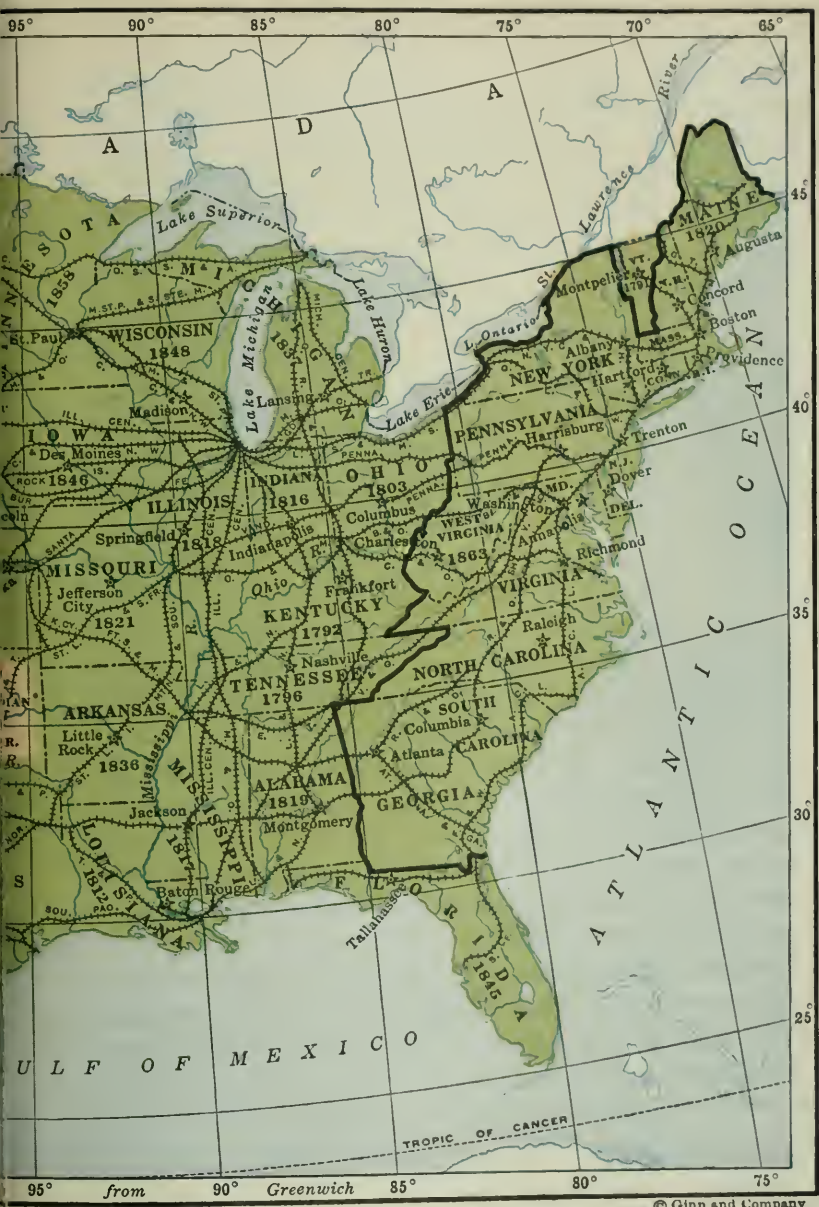
☆ Capitals of states and territories

Western boundary of the Thirteen Original Colonies

Principal railroads

Dates indicate when states were admitted

Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 · Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921



© Ginn and Company

all these things had to stop. The railroad took out hunters who gradually shot down the buffaloes, until by 1890 only a few were left. The government took from the Indian a large part of his land and made him live on small tracts called reservations. When the Indian refused to give up his land, war resulted, and the Indian was beaten. The settlers took up land, fenced it in with barbed wire, and refused to let the cowboy cross with his herd of wild steers. The cowboy fought the farmer and was beaten. The government helped the farmer because it had given the land to the settler to live on and cultivate. By 1890 the long drive had come to an end.

The Meat Supply of Today. We all know, however, that our meat supply still comes mainly from the plains. What happened when the cowboy had to give up the long drive? Here and there all over the western edge of the plains were established huge cattle farms called ranches, especially in the Dakotas, Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado.[1] Cattle were raised on these farms instead of being driven over the long trail, and were kept on the ranch until ready for shipment on freight cars to the slaughterhouses.

Special freight cars began to be made in which ice was packed. In such cars the freshly slaughtered meat was shipped to the East. Meats were cooked or preserved so that they would not decay, were sealed in tin cans, and shipped to all parts of the world. Meat-packing came to be one of the great industries of America.

The Last Plains State. The last part of the plains to be opened to settlement by the farmer was that which we know as Oklahoma. This had long been called the Indian Territory. It was a huge stretch of plain just north of Texas, on which the government had made many tribes of Indians settle.

[1] Some idea of the size of these farms may be gained from such facts as the following: in 1900 Montana had 6,170,483 sheep, and Wyoming had 5,099,613; Texas had 9,500,000 cattle, and Iowa had 9,700,000 swine.

A Herd of Cattle, a Common Sight on the Western Plains at Any Time after the Civil War

Just after the Civil War the American farmers exported over $22,000,000 worth of meats and meat products, such as lard; in 1900 they exported over $175,000,000 worth, besides all that was raised and used at home. It was in such droves as those shown above that most of the cattle were fed for the market. (Photograph by Ewing Galloway)

Because the demand for good farms was very great, the government bought the land from the red men. Then the red men were given small farms to live on, and the rest of the land was opened for sale to anybody wishing to take it. On April 22, 1889, at noon, Oklahoma was open for settlement. A blast on a bugle was the signal that people could enter the fertile new land. Thousands of men were waiting at the border, and when the blast came, in they went. Some went on foot; some, on horseback or in wagons. By nightfall fifty thousand people were living in Oklahoma. In 1907 it was admitted as a state. At that time it had nearly eight hundred thousand inhabitants, including the Indians.

Review and Enrichment

1. Using the data below, illustrate by means of a bar diagram the increase in population of each state listed. The figures for each date are in round numbers.

State	1870	1880	1890	1900
Ohio	2,660,000	3,190,000	3,670,000	4,150,000
Indiana	1,680,000	1,970,000	2,190,000	2,510,000
Illinois	2,530,000	3,070,000	3,820,000	4,820,000
Michigan	1,180,000	1,630,000	2,090,000	2,420,000
Kentucky	1,320,000	1,640,000	1,850,000	2,140,000
Tennessee	1,250,000	1,540,000	1,760,000	2,020,000
Iowa	1,190,000	1,620,000	1,910,000	2,230,000
Minnesota	430,000	780,000	1,310,000	1,750,000
Kansas	360,000	990,000	1,420,000	1,470,000
Nebraska	120,000	450,000	1,060,000	1,060,000

2. Determine the size of the Great Plains in square miles from the data given in the paragraph "A View of the Great Plains" (p. 367).

3. Give a floor talk on the subject "The Great Plains in the Late Eighteen-sixties."

4. Make a list of all the places mentioned in the section. Locate each on a map.

5. Fix in your memory the meaning of the following: long drive, sagebrush, cowboy, reservation, ranch, Indian Territory, sod house.

6. Explain how and why the long drive came to an end.

7. Be sure to read "Cows and Cowboys," in *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard, chap. viii.

8. Become familiar with *The Story of the Cowboy*, by Emerson Hough, and *The Book of Cowboys*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler.

5. What was Going On beyond the Plains

The Rocky Mountain States. If we could have crossed the Middle West, which we have been describing, at any time after 1865, we should have found the country less and less settled as we got farther west. After we had crossed

the plains we should have come to the huge area occupied by the Rocky Mountains, where the population was very small indeed.

Eight states occupy the Rocky Mountain region. They are Nevada, admitted to the Union in 1864; Colorado, the Centennial State, admitted in 1876; Montana, admitted in 1889; Idaho and Wyoming, both admitted in 1890; Utah, admitted in 1896;[1] and Arizona and New Mexico, both admitted in 1912. These states contain nearly nine hundred thousand square miles of land; when the first census after the Civil War was taken, in 1870, they contained only three hundred and fifteen thousand people, so that every man, woman, and child might have had between two and three square miles of land all to himself.

Mining. Settlers were first attracted to the mountain states because of the precious metals found there. Nevada had silver; in Colorado there were gold, silver, and lead; Arizona was rich in copper; Idaho and Montana and Wyoming were searched for similar treasures. Little mining towns sprang up. Some became great cities, such as Denver; others dwindled away and were completely abandoned. Great fortunes were made in mining, and sometimes these too dwindled away and were lost in a few years.

In a short time there were more men to work the mines than there were good mines to be worked. Hence people turned their attention to raising cattle in the fertile moun-

[1] The case of Utah is interesting. Recalling its early history as described on page 265, we remember that the Mormons had gone far into the Rocky Mountains to set up a colony in 1847. After the Civil War the people living in other parts of the Union began to demand that the Mormons stop their custom of polygamy; that is, allowing a man to have more than one wife. At last the Mormons gave up the custom. Utah was admitted as a state in 1896. By that time it had about a quarter of a million people. Its capital, Salt Lake City, has many beautiful streets and buildings and is visited every year by many travelers.

tain valleys. Agriculture began to flourish. The new interests attracted more settlers. The census of 1870 and the census of 1900 show the result:

In 1900 Wyoming had ten times as many people as in 1870.
In 1900 Idaho had eleven times as many people as in 1870.
In 1900 Montana had twelve times as many people as in 1870.
In 1900 Arizona had thirteen times as many people as in 1870.
In 1900 Colorado had fourteen times as many people as in 1870.

For many years after the close of the Civil War, life in the mountain states was as rough as it was on the plains in the sixties and seventies. The Indians were always dangerous. Criminals and other rough characters from the East fled to the West to escape the clutches of the law. Trains and stagecoaches were sometimes stopped by armed men, and the passengers robbed of their valuables. Men commonly went armed with a revolver and knew how to pull it out quickly and shoot soon enough to protect themselves. As time went on, law and order were established. The rough characters left for other places, or settled on farms or ranches and became law-abiding citizens. Life in the mountain states became more like life in other parts of the country. The people of the East, however, continued for years afterwards to imagine that the West was "wild and woolly" and inhabited only by criminals and Indians.

The Pacific Coast States. Beyond the Rocky Mountain states lie the three Pacific-coast states: California, admitted in 1850; Oregon, admitted in 1859; and Washington, in 1889. These states, especially California and Oregon, had been settled to a considerable extent before the Civil War. Their further growth depended on a railroad.

The railway which was being built across the plains from Omaha reached the middle of Utah in 1869. At the same time another railroad was being built eastward from Sac-

The Joining of the Railroads near Ogden, in Utah, 1869

Photograph by Ewing Galloway

ramento. This also reached the middle of Utah in 1869. And there one day the two roads met. The last spike was driven in, and the East was connected with the West. After the Union Pacific Railroad was successfully completed, other lines were built, so that by 1884 a traveler could cross to the Pacific coast by any one of six ways.

Migration to the Coast. The railroad made a journey to the Pacific coast a far different thing from the dangerous, hard journey in a wagon over the Oregon Trail. Where a few went before, a thousand now took the trains. Thirty years after the Union Pacific was finished, people who had made homes in the Far West numbered nearly a million and three quarters. They came from every state in the Union — from far-away Maine, from Pennsylvania, from the South, and from the Mississippi Valley. Some were attracted by

the mines, others by the mild and healthful climate, and others went to cut timber in the mammoth forests or to grow fruits and nuts and grain in the wide, fertile valleys. Railroad companies printed glowing advertisements about the fruitful land to be had almost for the asking, and showed pictures of the wonderful wheat, vegetables, and other products which grew to an unheard-of size near the Columbia, the Willamette, the Sacramento, or the San Joaquin.

And so the westward tide of migration that began with the founding of the little colonies at Jamestown in 1607 and at Plymouth in 1620 now reached its westward limit and stopped by the waves of the Pacific Ocean.

Review and Project

1. On an outline map of the western United States show the eight Rocky Mountain states, with the date of admission to the Union.

2. Below is given the population of five of the Rocky Mountain states in 1870 and in 1900. By means of a bar diagram show the increase of each in population.

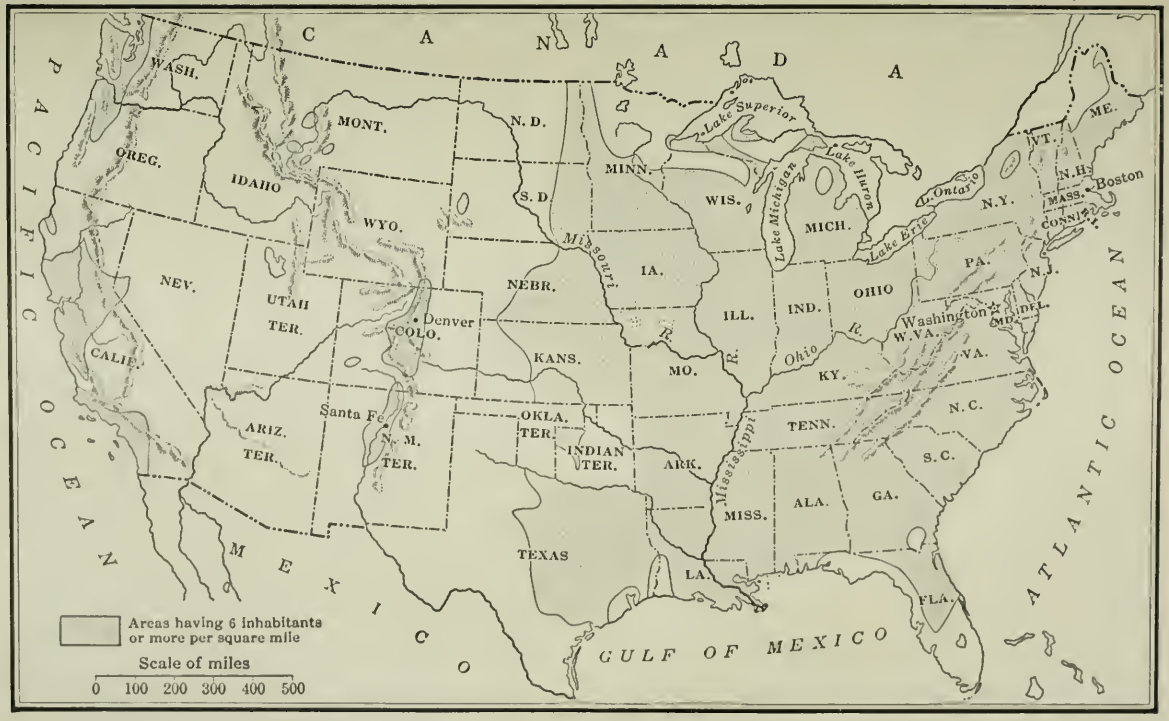
POPULATION IN ROUND NUMBERS

STATE	1870	1900
Wyoming	9,000	92,000
Idaho	14,000	161,000
Montana	20,000	243,000
Arizona	9,000	122,000
Colorado	39,000	539,000

3. Explain the origin and meaning of the expression "wild and woolly West."

4. For what reasons did people first go to the Far Western states? Did the reasons change in later years? Why?

5. The short paragraph at the top of this page speaks of the westward migration that began with Jamestown and ended with the Pacific Ocean. Follow the progress of this migration now on each of the three frontier-line maps.



The United States, showing the Frontier Line of 1890

6. *The Bullwhacker* and *The Prairie Schooner*, by W. F. Hooker, *The Adventures of Buffalo Bill*, by W. F. Cody, and the two books by Mrs. Elizabeth B. Custer listed on page 331 will interest you. Do not miss reading the whole of one of them.

7. Make a list of the ways by which a traveler in 1884 could have crossed to the Pacific coast.

8. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to show the increase in population of the Pacific-coast states between 1870 and 1900.

POPULATION IN ROUND NUMBERS

STATE	1870	1880	1890	1900
California	560,000	864,000	1,213,000	1,485,000
Oregon	90,000	174,000	317,000	413,000
Washington	23,000	75,000	357,000	518,000

9. Find the story of the picture on page 375 and tell it to the class. A good account is found in *The Railroad Builders*, by John Moody. p. 128. Can you find a picture of this event which is not a photograph? If so, what differences do you notice?

UNIT III. HOW AGRICULTURE CHANGED BETWEEN 1865 AND 1900

All through the growth and change, farming remained the greatest American industry. A majority of Americans were either farmers or occupied in serving the farmers in some way. They kept stores to sell the farmers what they needed, or they carried the farmers' crops to market and brought them manufactured goods, or they served them in professions. Men might be teachers, or doctors, or ministers; but so long as they served farmers and their families, farming was for them a very important kind of work. Farming was, then, the basic, or most important, industry in the United States in all this period. It changed very greatly all over the country. Let us see what was happening.

1. How Agriculture Changed in the Northeast

Since the movement of people to the cities was greatest in the Northeast, the effect of city growth was most quickly seen there. After the Civil War men began to leave the New England farms and come to town; and since no one wanted to work these farms, they were simply allowed to lie unused. It did not pay to work the stony farms of New England. So there began in that region the period of "abandoned farms." In 1900 there was less land cultivated in New England than there was in 1861, and after 1880 the amount tilled began to grow less also in the middle-Atlantic states. It still paid to till the very best land; it was only the poorer farms that were abandoned. Sometimes, too, immigrants bought the abandoned farms and, by hard work and good methods, made a living where the Americans had failed or where Americans did not care to try.

The Truck Farm Appears. Many farms that were not abandoned changed their product during this period. The people of such great cities as Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, together with the people of all the smaller cities sprinkled in between, needed great quantities of vegetables and berries. It was during this time that doctors and teachers were telling people that they should eat more fruit and vegetables and less meat, and the people were following that advice. It happens that the soil from southern New Jersey down to Georgia is of just the right sort to grow these things. The farmers found this out. They began to send crates and barrels of fruit and vegetables north. The railroads began to make special cars to carry the goods. During 1900, for example, more than eleven hundred carloads of strawberries were shipped north from North Carolina alone. Fresh spinach and lettuce could be had all winter long. This kind of farming is called truck farming.

Dairying becomes a Great Industry. The teachers and doctors were also telling people that they should drink more milk; and as the people demanded more and more of this product, dairy farms grew in number and size. Many farms near the great cities were given over entirely now to pastures for great herds of cows. The dairymen formed a society to study this kind of farming, and they began to take great pride in their herds and to compete to see whose cow could produce the most and the best milk. Scientists at the state universities spent years in discovering ways to help the dairymen to produce more milk and get it to market clean and good. The demand for cheese and butter grew along with that for milk. The farmers of several regions, notably New York and Wisconsin, became famous for their butter and cheese.

Another type of farm that had not been known before was the chicken farm. The cities needed so much poultry that men and women could make a living from chickens and eggs alone. Here, as in the other new kinds of farming, scientists took hold of the problems and told the farmers how to do their work. By 1900, then, a great deal of farm land that had once grown wheat, corn, and oats was producing other kinds of food because of the growth of the cities.

Review and Project

1. Explain the influence the rise of cities had on farming in the New England and Middle Atlantic states.

2. Give a brief talk on the subject "The Rise of Truck Farming in the South."

3. Do you think that women could do as much of the new kind of farming as they did in the old days of big fields and grain crops? Do you know, for instance, whether they have taken up poultry farming?

4. Do you eat as much meat as your grandparents ate in their childhood? Find out, and see if you can explain the reason for the change.

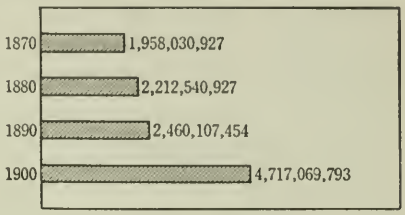
5. During this period cranberry farming began in some places. Why? Do you know what a cranberry farm is like?

2. Changes in Agriculture in the North-Central States

When white men first went to the region about the Great Lakes, they found it clothed in a garment of trees. The trees had never been cut, and they offered fortunes to the lumbermen. Men who saw their opportunity went to those states and secured the right to cut the timber. Sometimes they bought the land; sometimes they only promised to buy it some day. But in any case, during the middle of the century they were busy cutting the lumber and selling it for the thousands of new houses that were being built all over the land. They hired gangs of men who cut lumber all winter, living in camps set among the trees. The lumbermen made great fortunes, and when they were through cutting down the trees the people began to realize that they had lost something very precious. The lumber had been cut and used so wastefully that what should have lasted the people for a long time had been used up in a few decades.

Some of the land from which the trees had been cut now became farming land. The lumber states of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota had lost most of their forests by 1900. Many Dutch people came to Michigan, and under their care the eastern shore of Lake Michigan became a fruit orchard. In Wisconsin, as has been said, dairying became the great business, more especially in the southern part. Minnesota was the beginning of the northern wheat belt, which went on west through the Dakotas and Montana to the mountains.

The Corn Belt. South of the wheat belt stretched the corn belt, through Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, and Nebraska. In this region the native American maize, or corn, as it is commonly called, was the great crop. The climate in that region is of tropical heat in the summer, and only in that heat can the Indian corn, an imported tropical plant, be well grown. Between 1865 and 1900 most of the farmers changed their ways of farming, but they kept the maize always as their central crop.



Value of Farm Products, 1870–1900, in Dollars

The Mississippi Valley States. The United States census said in 1900 that more people were engaged in farming than in any other industry. How could that be if so many people were leaving the farms for the cities in New England and in the middle states? The answer to the conundrum is that unheard-of amounts of land were being opened up in the Mississippi Valley. In Iowa and the Dakotas, in Texas and Oklahoma (and out on the Pacific coast as well), enough new land was opened up to make a New England or two and have something to spare. The ten states with the most valuable farm products are given below. Anybody can easily tell whether any of these states are in New England, in the middle-Atlantic states, in the Mississippi Valley, or elsewhere.

VALUE OF FARM PRODUCTS IN CERTAIN STATES IN 1900

Iowa	$536,000,000	Missouri	$219,000,000
Illinois	346,000,000	Kansas	210,000,000
Ohio	257,000,000	Pennsylvania	208,000,000
New York	245,000,000	Indiana	204,000,000
Texas	240,000,000	Nebraska	163,000,000

The Use of Machinery. As we already know, the opening of the big Western farms on the level prairies made possible the use of agricultural machinery. The few simple harvesters which McCormick made before the Civil War opened the way to far greater things. These machines were enlarged and improved. More and more farmers were able to buy them. Better plows were made, and more convenient mowers, reapers, cultivators, and harrows. Harvesters were even made that cut grain, gathered it into bundles, and tied the bundles together with twine. For power at this time the farmer depended on the horse.

3. Agricultural Changes in the South

We have already seen that in changing from slave labor to free labor the Southern people made their farms smaller between 1865 and 1900. Share farming (see page 339) helped both white men and negroes to start again, and gradually the South found itself growing more and more cotton, tobacco, sugar, and rice. By 1880 the cotton crop was as large as it was in 1860. By 1890 Louisiana had brought her sugar crop up to that of 1860, and by 1900 Virginia raised as much tobacco as in 1860. Between 1890 and 1900 the Southern rice crop had again reached its 1860 mark. All this shows how hard it is for a country to recover from a war, and it also shows that changes often produce a loss for many years, even when the change is for the better.

Good-by to Staple Farming! The South had its scientists also, and these men now began to tell the farmers that they were making a great mistake. In the South each region had its favorite crop, and most farmers raised only the one thing. This crop was called the staple crop. Of course cotton was the staple in most parts of the South, although tobacco was Kentucky's staple crop and sugar was Louisiana's. The

scientists told the farmers that instead of raising only one crop they should raise several. They should have several kinds of animals on each farm, and they should "rotate" — that is, change from year to year — the crops of each field. All this meant learning new ways and buying new machinery, and the Southern farmers were slow to take the advice. The scientists told them that they would wear out their land if they continued year after year to raise the same crop in the fields. When 1890 came most of the cheap land was gone. It was less easy to sell the old plantation and move farther west to a new home with fresh land. Seeing that they must either take the advice given them or lose their means of living, the more intelligent farmers began to "diversify" their farming; that is, they began to raise several kinds of crops where they had before raised but one. This change had not gone very far when something happened that forced many of them to diversify their farming whether they wanted to or not. But that event affected them a little later than 1900, and so it must be left to a later place in our story.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Remembering your study of early frontier times, give a floor talk entitled "Three Eras in the History of the Great Lakes Region."

2. Find and list as many farming machines as you can which were introduced between 1865 and 1890. Did these machines increase or decrease the demand for labor? Why?

3. Explain (1) why the Southern planter before the Civil War did not use diversified farming; (2) why the Middle West and the Far West each turned from cattle-raising to farming; (3) why truck farming and poultry farming did not develop until after the Civil War.

4. Read, for additional facts about agriculture, *The Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States* and *The Story of Corn and the Westward Migration*, both by E. C. Brooks, and *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, by A. H. Sanford.

4. Farming in the Far West

The fertile valleys west of the Rockies were sometimes so large that farmers there could farm much as their Eastern brothers did. But in other valleys, either tucked away among the mountains or lying between tall ranges that did not allow rain clouds to pass over, farming was long impossible. There was not rain enough for any kind of crop. It did not matter so long as the land was used only for grazing cattle, which the cowboys could take to new pastures when the grass was gone. But the time came — between 1865 and 1900 — when that land was needed for farming.

Irrigation. Several of the Western states solved the problem by building great dams. The reservoirs that were thus formed collected water in spring, when the snows melted. When the dry season came the water was carried in pipes and ditches to the cultivated land. This system is known as irrigation. It worked so well that a great demand arose for more and more irrigation dams and reservoirs. The states could not pay for these great works; so the United States began to build them about 1902.

The system had made so much progress by 1900 that six states — Colorado, California, Montana, Utah, Idaho, and Wyoming — had together more than a half-million acres of irrigated land. As one goes through any of these states today one notices a difference on two sides of the road: on one side nothing grows but dry, dusty bushes; on the other side healthy-looking sugar beets or alfalfa are seen. On the side where the crops are growing one finds an irrigation ditch full of water.

The Development of the Fruit Industry. We have seen how the idea that people should eat fruit helped the fruit farmers east of the Rockies. The land in the three Pacific-coast states is particularly well suited to fruit, and in the

Transformation of the Desert; the Result of Irrigation

eighties and nineties great orchards of orange, lemon, and grapefruit trees were set out in California. There were railroads which could carry these fruits to the Middle West and to the East. California became a land of well-to-do fruit farmers. Once in a while there was a frost, and the crop was destroyed; but usually the trees brought their owners a good income. In Oregon and Washington prunes and loganberries and other more northern fruits did equally well. Perhaps never in the world's history had people eaten so much fruit as they did in America by the year 1900.

Coöperative Selling. There was another important result of this fruit-growing. The fruit farmers found that if each man tried to sell his own crop of prunes or oranges he often lost money after his year's work. Moreover, if a man had a small orchard it was hard for him to bargain for space in a refrigerator car to carry his crop to Chicago or New York. Then, when harvest time came, everyone wanted the pickers

to come to his orchard first. Gradually the fruit men saw that they ought to organize into a society which would take charge of all their orchards, and arrange things in an orderly way so as to take care of big and little orchards and see to it that each man's crop was sold. Men who understood the business planned the raising of the crop, its harvesting, and its sale. The fruit farmers paid these men salaries to manage the whole business in the best way. They found that they now had less trouble and worry than before and that their orchards paid them more.

Thus a new plan for farmers was introduced. It was called the coöperative[1] plan, since everyone worked together. Others besides fruit men used it: dairymen, truck farmers and gardeners, and sugar-beet-raisers. It made farming a business, as it had not been before. It gave farming the benefit of business ways.

Project and Enrichment

1. Using the map "The Great West in 1876" following page 350, find the places where you think an irrigation system was needed. Does the class agree? Locate these places on the wall map.

2. Can you think of any other public business which was too big for the states to handle and which was therefore taken up by the Federal government?

3. List the fruits and vegetables sold in your town or city that come from the Pacific-coast states. Do the same fruits and vegetables reach you from Florida?

4. Ask your fruit-seller to tell you the name of one or more co-operative selling companies from whom he buys fruit or vegetables. Is there such a society among the farmers near your town?

5. Do you know or can you find out whether the coöperative idea is an American one or came from some other country?

[1] Look up the meaning of this word in a large dictionary and see how it is made up.

UNIT IV. HOW INDUSTRY CHANGED, 1865–1900

1. Manufacturing

Rapid Growth of Manufacturing. More people were engaged in agriculture between 1865 and 1900 than in manufacturing; but, in spite of this, by 1900 the products of the factories were worth more each year than the products of the farm.

The Civil War was a spur to manufacturing, because so many uniforms had to be made, so many guns put together, so much bread baked, and so many cans of food packed. After the war the factories continued to hum. People put billions of dollars into shops and factories, and then more billions, until by 1900 nearly ten billion dollars were invested in manufacturing. Every night in 1900 when the factory doors were opened, out came an army of men, women, and children workers — an army nearly a million and a half larger than the whole population of the United States when Washington became president.

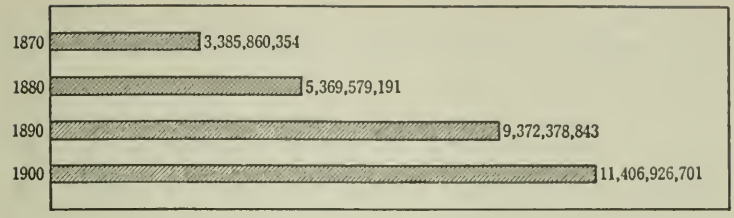
The most important things which were being manufactured could almost be guessed, because they are the things which we all need most. They were flour, cereals, meat products, and canned foods; iron and steel for railroads, and steel, lumber, shingles, and so on for houses and other buildings; shoes, cloth, and clothing; paper, books, and newspapers. In other words, the factories made things to eat, things to protect us from the weather, things to wear, and things to read.

More manufacturing was being done in Eastern states, such as New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, than in any others. But the states lying just west of Pennsylvania — Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, and Missouri — were pressing on the heels of the leaders. In fact, if we could

have flown in an airship across these states in the eighties and nineties, and if we could have watched where the new factories were being built, we should have found them being put up more and more in the West. Manufacturing, like population and agriculture, was gradually spreading into the flat country beyond the Appalachian Mountains. In the South progress was being made in turning out lumber, flour, iron and steel, and cotton goods.

Source of Raw Materials. The rapid growth of manufacturing demanded bigger supplies of raw materials to work on. The coal and iron of Pennsylvania were mined in constantly larger amounts. Supplies of iron ore around Lake Michigan and Lake Superior caused the iron-and-steel industry to grow immensely. The forests around the Great Lakes and in the South were cut down. Copper and silver and lead were brought from the Rocky Mountains, from the shores of Lake Superior, from Missouri, and elsewhere. Wells were bored into the ground to get the oil of western Pennsylvania and eastern Ohio. From the Orient and from Europe came raw silk for silk mills. The hides of cattle on the Western plains were carried east to be tanned into leather. From the far-flung cotton belt of the South came shiploads of baled cotton to the New England mills. On the Northern hills large flocks of sheep fed the great woolen factories. In short, every part of the country was searched to find materials for the growing army of factory workers.

Source of Labor. If we should look about in any of the great manufacturing cities and towns, we should soon discover where many of the workers came from. In the South they were Americans who had been farming in the hills; now they came down into the valleys and worked in the factories. Children could tend the machinery as well as grown people; therefore many of the workers were children, for the Southern states had no laws against child labor.



Value of Manufactures, 1870–1900, in Dollars

The need for employees in the Northern factories and steel mills and in the mines was so great that immigrants fairly swarmed over to meet the demand. In some of the factory towns of New England eight out of every ten of the inhabitants were born across the water or were the childern of parents who were born there. French Canadians poured across the border to work in the cotton and woolen mills of New England. Germans, Italians, Austrians, Irish, and Russians came to work in the mines, shops, and mills. All these people had their influence on American life; slowly the thinking and the living of some of the people changed because the immigrants were a part of the nation.

Combining Small Companies into Large Ones. During the years from 1865 to 1900, when the army of immigrant workers was coming across the water, another great change was brought about. It can best be explained by telling about something that happened to some railroads in New York State.

When the railroads were first built between Albany and Buffalo, five different railroad companies divided the three hundred miles between the two cities. When one traveled from Albany to Buffalo at that time, he rode from Albany a short distance to the end of the first railroad; then he got out and hired somebody to carry his trunk across to the next railroad; there he bought another ticket, checked his trunk again, and then waited for the next train on that railroad;

and so on for the remaining three roads. In making the short journey of three hundred miles he had his trunk moved five times, bought five tickets, and waited for five trains. The simplest thing to do, of course, was for one big company to buy and connect the five railroads and carry passengers clear through on one train and one ticket. This was done shortly after the Civil War, and other railroads soon combined in the same way.

Thereupon the small manufacturing companies began to do the same thing. A large number of small oil companies combined into one big one. Many small companies that made matches combined into one large one. It was the same with the factories where sugar and steel and twine and other things were made. These manufacturers soon discovered that they could make things for less cost in large plants than in small ones; of course this made greater profits. A few big companies could fix wages when they wished, whereas many small companies could not. It was an arrangement that was very good for the manufacturers.

About 1890 the country was complaining bitterly about the big companies and the way they tried to get a monopoly (that is, complete control) of the manufacture of various products. At last, in 1890, Congress passed a law known as the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, which forbade any person to get, or even to try to get, a monopoly of trade in any product. However, the law was not well enforced for many years.

Better Machines and More Products. Then there appeared another change. The big companies could buy big, costly machinery, such as steam shovels, huge looms, heavy engines, and the like. These machines did more work than could be done by human workers. Imagine how much more cloth can be made on a steam-driven loom than can be woven by hand!

The workmen who ran the steam shovels and the huge

looms knew that they were turning out more products for their employers; therefore they felt that they had earned more pay.

But here another change appeared. When all the work was done in small factories and shops, the employer knew his workmen personally: he knew their names, knew when there was sickness in the families, and when the employee was an especially good or especially poor workman. But when the factories grew larger and were grouped in big combinations, the employer did not know his men. Frequently the factories where the men worked were in Massachusetts or Ohio or Missouri, but the office was in New York City. For these reasons the working people could not go directly to their employer and complain about things which they did not like.

Good and Bad Sides of the Factories. The growth of the factory system had its good sides and its bad sides. It had these good ones:

The factories gave steady employment to a large number of people who preferred such work to labor on the farm.

Many things became common and cheap so that nearly everybody could have them. Clothing became so cheap that people were more comfortably dressed than ever before in the world's history. Homes were better furnished; for example, silver-plated knives and forks became so cheap that they replaced the old-fashioned steel on the table, and there were more dishes in the pantry.

The chief bad features of the factory system were these:

The country used its resources too recklessly. For example, it cut down forests without planting new ones.

Women and even little children were employed at hard work for too long hours in factories.

Dangerous, whirling machinery was left unguarded, so that thousands of people were killed or injured every year.

Large companies tried to get control of all the factories that made such things as oil or sugar or matches or twine. Then the companies could charge whatever price they pleased, because nobody else would have the goods to sell.

Project and Activity

1. In 1790 the population of the United States was 3,929,214. How large was the army of factory workers in 1900 (see page 387)?

2. Explain why most of the factories in 1900 were found east of the Mississippi River and north of the Potomac and Ohio rivers.

3. Factories must have laborers, and raw materials such as coal, iron, oil, hides, and cotton. Tell where these came from in the eighteen-nineties.

4. Give a brief floor talk on the subject "Good and Bad Features of Combining Small Companies into Big Ones."

5. Make sure that you understand such terms as the following: monopoly, combination, capital, labor, employee, employer, company.

6. Study with care the railroad maps on page 405. Then close the book and see whether you can describe to yourself the chief differences between the two maps.

2. How Labor Organizations Arose and Combined

Combinations of Workmen. In the meantime the workmen were combining, just as the railroad, oil, and sugar companies had done. The order of the Knights of Labor was formed in 1869, the year in which the railroad was finished to the Pacific coast. Its best-known leader was Terence V. Powderly, and at one time it had seven hundred thousand members. But the organization of this society was not suited to the ideas and habits of American workmen, and it did not win the things that it wanted for its members. So a different kind of organization was tried. In 1881 the American Federation of Labor was organized. Its president,

Terence V. Powderly Samuel Gompers

Powderly (1849–1924) became a railroad switch-tender at thirteen and a mechanic at fifteen. He entered politics as a labor leader, and in 1879 began his fourteen-year service as General Master Workman of the Knights of Labor. At the age of forty-four he began the study of law, at which he was so successful that in 1901 he was admitted to practice before the Supreme Court. From 1897 to 1902 he was Commissioner-General of Immigration. Gompers, born in London in 1850, came to America when he was thirteen years of age. He was a cigar-maker by trade. His greatest service to American life lay in his sane, friendly view of labor problems. He did not waste time in useless fighting, but tried to help labor and capital to understand each other and work together

Samuel Gompers, served from 1881 nearly all the time until his death in 1924. The Federation still continues; in 1926 it had over three million three hundred thousand members.

Newspapers were founded which described the needs of the laboring people. Groups of carpenters and bricklayers, employees in all kinds of factories, workers in metals, and miners of coal and iron were organized in every state in the country and brought into the American Federation of Labor. The things which the Knights of Labor and the American Federation demanded for their members were such as the following: a shorter working day (at that time the working

day was from ten to twelve hours); more pay; care for the health and safety of workmen who were in dangerous trades or who had to work near dangerous machinery; laws preventing small children from working in factories; and the right to collective bargaining, or wage agreements made for all the workers by their elected representatives.

Strikes. The next change in the history of American manufacturing came when the workmen made their demands and the employers refused to agree. At such times the workers frequently "struck"; that is, they walked out of the factories and refused to work until their demands were listened to.

During the late seventies strikes became common, and during the eighties there were hundreds of them every year. One or two examples will show how bitter some of the contests between labor and "capital" came to be ("capital" is a word often used to mean the people who own and operate the factories).

In 1892 occurred the *Homestead strike*, in the Carnegie Steel Company works at Homestead, near Pittsburgh. The men struck because their pay had been reduced and because the company would have no dealings with the Iron and Steel Workers' Union. Fearing that their buildings might be damaged by the strikers, the company hired detectives and gave them rifles with which to fire on the workmen. A small war resulted between the detectives and the strikers. Men were killed, and property was destroyed. At last the state militia had to be called upon to stop the quarrel.

Another famous strike about this time was the *Pullman strike* of 1894. During 1893 and 1894 business was not prosperous; and the Pullman Palace Car Company at Pullman, a town located near Chicago,[1] reduced the wages of its

[1] Pullman at that time was a village in the suburbs of Chicago. Since then Chicago has grown so fast that it has swallowed up Pullman and grown far out beyond it.

workers about 25 per cent. The workmen sent a committee to the company to ask that there should be no reduction in pay. The company refused the request and, moreover, discharged some members of the committee. Then the workmen struck. The railroad workers in and near Chicago took the side of the Pullman employees; railroad officers took the side of the Pullman Company. Then riots began. Cars were tipped over and burned, and trains were stopped. Most of this disorder, but not all of it, was caused by criminals and rowdies from Chicago who were not connected with either side of the strike. Trains carrying goods to states outside Illinois were interfered with, and mail cars were damaged. When the mails were delayed, the President of the United States decided that soldiers must be sent to prevent further trouble.

Results of the Strikes. As a result of these constant quarrels between employees and employers, the employers came to dislike the unions because of the riots that resulted from strikes; the unions came to dislike the companies because the companies hired detectives and soldiers to fire on them; the rest of the people were greatly alarmed by what amounted practically to war between employers and employees; but the workmen were so frequently successful in getting what they struck for that strikes continued.

In a few states attempts were made to settle the labor troubles more peaceably than by detectives, soldiers, and riots. As early as 1866 Massachusetts passed a law forbidding factories to employ children under ten years of age. A few years later the law forbade the employment of women and young people under eighteen years of age for more than ten hours a day. Massachusetts and other states passed laws providing that employers must guard dangerous machinery, place fences around elevator openings, and have fire escapes in factory buildings. These laws were intended to bring

about the changes which the labor unions wished without having strikes. Unfortunately, many of these laws were not enforced by the states; so employers paid too little attention to them.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Make a list of the results of combining small companies into big ones. Which of these results caused the laborers to think of combining, too?

2. Show why the employers of labor often refused to grant the demands of the Knights of Labor and the American Federation of Labor.

3. Speak for three or four minutes on the topic "Contests between Capital and Labor in the Eighteen-nineties." Read "The Haymarket Tragedy," in *Our Own Recent Times (1877–1911)*, pp. 57–63, Volume X of Great Epochs in American History.

4. In 1881 there were 451 strikes in the United States, in 1891 there were 1717, and in 1901 there were 2924. Make a bar diagram to show the increase.

5. Make a brief report to the class on the importance of Terence V. Powderly and Samuel Gompers to the labor movement.

UNIT V. DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS THAT CHANGED DAILY LIFE

The people of 1900 lived far more comfortably than the people of 1865. This is because scientists and experimenters had discovered a great many new truths and also because people were eager to learn these new truths and to use them. The people had a great deal of curiosity: when they heard about a new thing, they wanted to see it; and when they had seen it, they wanted to use it. For this reason life changed in a multitude of ways; it was an interesting time in which to be alive.

1. Changes in Communication

We remember how the telegraph was invented and put into operation in 1844. News could be carried *almost instantly* by the telegraph, much more quickly than by the fastest train. We remember, too, how the first railroad to the Pacific was finished in 1869. Passengers could now go in safety within a few days across a region where it took weeks for a wagon to cross, and where, only a few years before, Indians, wild animals, hunger, thirst, and cold were common dangers. From the point of view of safety and speed, *distances were fast shrinking* in the United States.

Something similar was happening in the means of sending messages to others, or communication, as it is called. Gradually the time needed for sending messages grew shorter, just as the time needed to travel from one place to another grew shorter.

The telegraph cable across the Atlantic was successfully started in 1866. In later years still others were put down, and in no great time telegraph cables were extended all over the world. The world itself, like the United States, was beginning to grow smaller.

Talking through Wires. Alexander Graham Bell was not the only man who was trying in 1876 to discover a method of talking through wires. His was the first successful telephone, however. On October 9, 1876, he talked with a friend through a wire extending from Boston to Cambridge, a distance of two miles (in 1915 he talked with the same friend through a line thirty-four hundred miles long extending from New York to San Francisco). Bell's first telephone was a crude affair that gave uncertain results, but it could be improved. Changes and improvements were made by many men. Telephones began to be used by the thousand, and then by the hundred thousand. In 1900 there were nearly 1,000,000 of

The Evolution of the Telephone

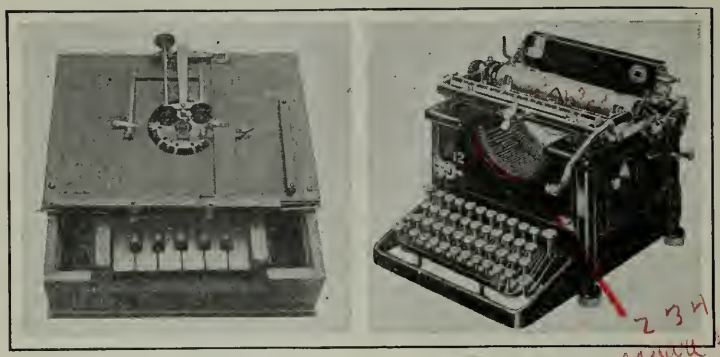
As used in 1875, 1877, 1886, 1898, and 1930 (two types)

them; in 1923, about 14,000,000; in 1927, nearly 18,000,000. Several hundred thousand people are employed in the telephone business, and half a million invest money in it. Even more important are the direct effects of the telephone on American life. Modern business depends every minute on quick, accurate telephone service; in times of danger from fire the telephone alarm often saves much damage; when floods or earthquakes come, help is quickly called over the telephone; when the doctor is needed he can be called at a moment's notice; and people can talk with their neighbors at any time.

> Science waves her hand, and silently
> A magic web is spun from sea to sea.
> The states crowd close together, as at night
> A family clusters 'round the fireside's light.

Invention of the Typewriter. Long before 1876, inventors in England and America had been trying to make a machine which would write. Finally one was made in the United States and shown at the Centennial Exhibition.[1] The typewriter had several advantages: a good operator could write much faster with it than he could with a pen; the writing could be read more easily; by using two sheets of paper and placing a black, or "carbon," paper between them, two copies could be made as easily as one. These advantages were especially important in connection with business letters.

[1] The Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia was the first great exhibition of its kind in America, and many of the thousands of things shown there were new to most people. There were air brakes, typewriters, a floor covering called linoleum, an apparatus for hatching chickens, and a telephone. Improved textile machinery was shown, some wonderful engines, fast printing-presses, and agricultural implements. Nearly ten million people visited the exhibition, and there were objects displayed from countries all over the world.



One of the First Typewriters, invented in 1868, and a Modern Machine

Typewriters were first manufactured in 1873. C. L. Sholes was the most important of several inventors of typewriters. Where do you think the inventor got his idea for the keys in the earliest instrument?

By the early eighties the United States government was using the machines in its offices; by 1900 many excellent machines were being made. Business men everywhere were taking them up; and since girls and young women were particularly skillful in using the machine, there arose a demand for trained "typists" in business offices. In this way several hundred thousand young women are now employed.

Newspapers. There were many good newspapers in the United States before the Civil War, although a newspaper man of today would consider them rather primitive. When the Civil War came on, the largest newspapers sent men to the scene of the fighting to gather the news. Everybody wanted to know what was going on. The papers grew larger. In general, the same changes have continued. The differences between a newspaper in 1865 and one in 1900 were these: the newspaper of 1900 had more pages, more advertisements, more news, and a greater circulation.

Many things have aided the newspaper man in turning out a better paper:

Modern Printing-presses at the Athenæum Press

These are the presses on which this book is printed. The picture shows the great sheets of paper printed but not yet folded into pages and cut. Each big sheet of paper makes a little book, and these are joined together and bound to make the big book. Look at the top of this book and find, if you can, one of the little books. How many leaves in it? How many pages?

There are the *press associations*, for example, which are companies organized by many of the newspapers of the country. The associations do nothing but collect news all over the world and send it to the newspapers. Hence you may read in your paper today about something that happened in China yesterday. Very likely the article may be headed "By the Associated Press," which means that the news was gathered and sent to your newspaper by the Associated Press.

Another aid to the modern newspaper is the *improved printing-press*. Between 1865 and 1900 the Hoe press was greatly improved in the convenience and speed with which it printed papers. In 1884 Ottmar Mergenthaler invented the linotype machine, which made printing easier and quicker.

The *telegraph* is a third thing which has greatly improved the modern newspaper. When Lincoln was nominated president at a great meeting in Chicago in 1860, only one telegraph operator was needed. He was able to supply all the news that the papers asked for. But in 1892, when another president was being nominated, a hundred telegraph operators were required.

A fourth aid is *advertising*, which brings the newspapers a great deal of money, and so helps them to give more news. Advertising also suggests to people things that they need or at least things that they want. Many people have changed their ways of living because the words and pictures of advertisements have given them new wants and needs. This is, then, something that has changed not only newspapers but life.

Project and Review

1. There were 4051 newspapers and periodicals in the United States in 1860; 5871 in 1870; 9723 in 1880; 16,948 in 1890; and 20,806 in 1900. Show the increase by means of a bar diagram.

2. Give a brief floor talk on the subject "How the Newspapers Changed between 1860 and 1900."

3. Speak for three or four minutes on the subject "How the World grew Smaller between 1865 and 1900."

4. Show the effect of Bell's telephone on modern life. Read "The Story of the Telephone," in *America First*, by L. B. Evans, pp. 401 ff.; also "The Marvelous History of the Telephone," in *Real Stories from Our History*, by J. T. Faris, chap. xliii.

5. Show by means of a bar diagram the increase in the number of telephones between 1900 and 1927. Use the data given in the text.

6. Speak for two or three minutes on the subject "New Things to be seen at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876." Imagine that you have just returned from a week at the exposition.

7. Show how the invention of the typewriter affected modern business; also point out the value of a carbon copy of a letter to a business man.

8. What is the real difference between the old way of setting type and that in which the linotype is used? See the chapter on Mergenthaler in Annie E. S. Beard's *Our Foreign-Born Citizens*.

2. The Age of Iron becomes the Age of Steel

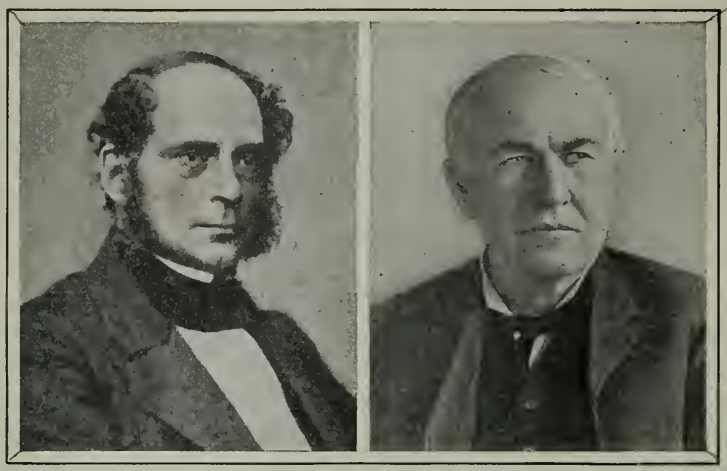
Turning Iron into Steel. The use of iron has been common for many centuries. But iron is not strong enough for a great many things. Iron rails are not strong enough for heavy railroad trains, and iron is not strong enough for bridges over which heavy loads will pass. For these reasons American life was greatly affected when two things occurred:

Just before the Civil War two men discovered a means of turning iron into steel quickly and cheaply. The men were Henry Bessemer in England and William Kelly in the United States.[1]

Just before the Civil War and just after it quantities of iron ore were discovered near Lake Superior. They were, on the whole, the most valuable iron mines that have ever been discovered.

Here, then, were the two things needed to make an "age of steel": plenty of iron close by and a way of turning the iron into steel quickly and cheaply. The ore was dug from the ground and was carried to such manufacturing cities as Chicago, Cleveland, Birmingham, and Pittsburgh, where plenty of workers were to be had. Steel rails were turned out, with which the railroad tracks of the country were laid. Steel beams were made, which were put into skyscrapers and bridges and school buildings. Steel machinery made

[1] Iron is turned into steel by melting it, making it pure, and putting in a few substances, chiefly carbon. Carbon is the black material which is seen on the end of a partly burned match or on the tip of a lamp wick.

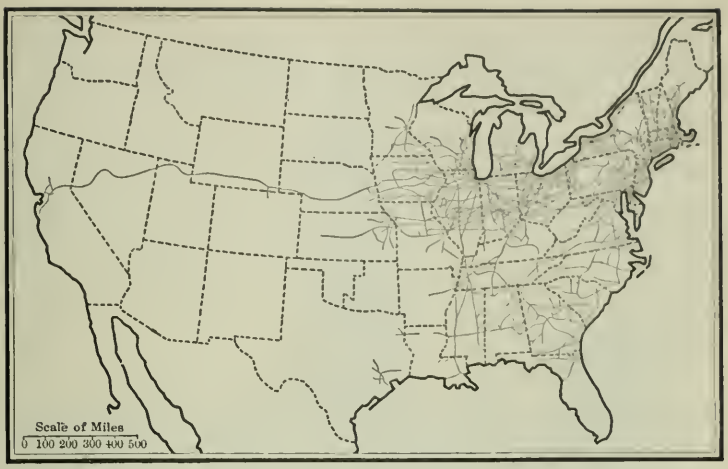


Henry Bessemer, the English Discoverer of Improved Methods of Making Steel, and Thomas Edison, Inventor of the Electric Light

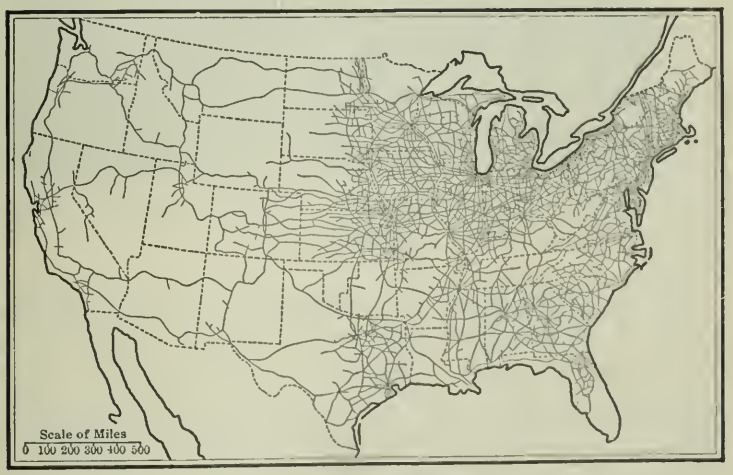
Important figures in the field of modern invention

the factories bigger and more productive than ever. Steel wire was drawn, which made telegraph lines all over the country possible. Huge guns and thick plates to cover the sides of warships made steel important for war purposes. By 1900 the United States was making millions of tons of steel every year. Hundreds of thousands of people were earning their living by working in the factories or offices of the steel companies. Unheard-of fortunes had been made in the steel business; in fact, the change was so rapid and so important that we sometimes speak of this time as the "age of steel."

Railroads in the Age of Steel. But by far the most important effect of the invention of steel was its help in making longer and stronger railroads. With rails of steel, railroad-builders could do things that could not have been done with the old rails of soft iron. Within the United States the years 1865–1900 were the great years of railroad-building.



The Railroads in 1870



The Railroads in 1890

The national government gave over 159,000,000 acres of land to various railroad companies between 1850 and 1871. Most of this land was later sold to farmers.

More lines were built across the plains; thousands of miles of lines were laid in the South; the Mississippi Valley was covered with them; everywhere the surveyor and the tracklayer were to be seen making a way for the locomotive and the freight car. The tracks laid between 1880 and 1900 alone would have gone four times round the world. We remember that before the Civil War a great many people — perhaps even most people — had never seen a railroad train. That condition did not last long after the years of rapid construction began.

This was the time, too, when the primitive railroad of the days before the war was turned into the modern road. Air brakes were invented, which stopped trains quickly and smoothly without hurling passengers out of their seats as the old brakes used to do. Coal replaced wood for fuel. Heavy steel rails were laid instead of the earlier iron and the still earlier plank with a strip of iron on top. Heavier cars and heavier locomotives could then be used. Pullman cars were improved. Safety appliances were put on trains in order to reduce the great number of accidents that were occurring. Bridges were built, and stations were erected. In short, before 1900 the American railway train had become in speed and comfort practically the train which we know today.

The Street Railway. If we had been in one of the large American cities before 1885 we should have smiled at the street-railway system. The cars were tiny, cold in winter and stuffy in summer, and drawn by horses. There had been such a system in New York as early as 1831, and in Boston, Philadelphia, and perhaps other cities before the Civil War. In 1876 an elevated railroad was built through some of the streets of New York, and trains drawn by small locomotives were run on it. In the eighteen-seventies some people in Germany began trying out an electric street car. Scientists

A New York Street in 1869, showing Types of Omnibus and Street Car used at that Time

The church is the Old North Dutch Church, built in 1760 and destroyed in 1874. It stood on the corner of Fulton and William streets. The picture is from a painting by Edward L. Henry, which hangs in the Metropolitan Museum, New York City

in America took up the idea. During the years after 1885 many cities did away with all their horse cars and began using trolley cars entirely. People used them to go down town to the store, the office, and the factory. Through their extension out into the region around the cities, the suburbs of many a town were started on a period of rapid growth. When these cars could not carry all the people, Boston and New York City made subways in tunnels underground.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Using the data below, make a bar diagram to show the increase in the production of steel between 1870 and 1900.

Year	Tons Produced
1870	68,000
1880	1,247,000
1890	4,277,000
1900	10,188,000

2. Explain what is meant by age of steel, cable, safety bicycle, Associated Press, carbon, air brakes, safety appliances, elevated railroad.

3. The railroad mileage in the United States was 30,626 miles in 1860; 52,922 miles in 1870; 93,267 miles in 1880; 167,191 miles in 1890; and 198,964 miles in 1900. Make a bar diagram to show these increases.

4. Read "The Railroads," in *The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean*, by Grace R. Hebard, chap. ix; "A Transcontinental Railroad," in *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks, chap. xxx; and *Real Stories from Our History*, by J. T. Faris, chaps. xl, xli (on railroad contrivances and the first transcontinental railroad).

5. On the maps on page 405 there are shown some places which even in 1890 were not supplied with railroads. Why? Do you think that railroads will ever be built in those regions? Why? Some places have telephones which do not have railroads. Can you explain the reason?

6. Read the story of Andrew Carnegie, in *Americans by Adoption*, by Joseph Husband, or *Our Foreign-Born Citizens*, by Annie E. S. Beard.

3. How Health Conditions Changed between 1865 and 1900

Epidemics and how they are Prevented. If we had lived seventy-five years ago we should have been in danger from the great "epidemics" that used to sweep over all countries. When a disease such as smallpox spread among a great many

people, there was said to be an "epidemic."[1] Sometimes diseases of this sort killed off a large proportion of the people of a city or town. Before the Civil War, epidemics were of rather common occurrence; by 1900 they were unusual. What happened in the meantime to do away with such a deadly enemy? One means of preventing epidemics is the "quarantine." For example, immigrants who have diseases are prevented from entering the United States. Since 1891 medical officers have examined every immigrant, looking particularly for certain diseases. It is considered unlikely that any of these diseases will ever again get a foothold in this country.

The second method of preventing epidemics is by vaccinating people. Vaccination began with an English doctor named Edward Jenner, who claimed that he could prevent smallpox in that way. It was a long time before many people were convinced that Jenner was right; but when they were convinced, some nations passed laws compelling everybody to be vaccinated. In 1918 the United States had an army of four million men, but less than a dozen of them died of smallpox.

The third method of preventing epidemics was discovered by Louis Pasteur, a Frenchman. Pasteur said that many diseases were caused by small organisms called germs. If the germs were killed or not allowed to enter the body, then the disease would stop. It was found, for example, that typhoid fever was caused by drinking impure water or milk. If the water or milk were boiled so as to kill the germs, or if only pure water and milk were drunk, then epidemics of typhoid fever would stop. Hence cities had their reservoirs examined to see that the water was pure, and farmers

[1] The smallpox was greatly dreaded in early America. Entire Indian tribes seem to have been killed off by it. George Washington had it when he was a young man.

Edward Jenner Louis Pasteur

In 1776 Jenner (1749–1823) began his search for a way to prevent smallpox, but it was not until 1798 that he was able to tell people how to prevent it by vaccination. The new cure was practiced at once in London and soon spread to the United States and other lands. Never again was smallpox the scourge that it had been, although many people refused to be vaccinated, and therefore it could not be stopped entirely. Jenner's discovery pointed the way to the mastery of other diseases, but the hint was not taken until Pasteur (1822–1895) began to work on the diseases of animals. He found that little plants and animals, too small to be seen without a microscope, cause changes in all living things. Some of them cause good changes; others cause disease and even death. Pasteur examined the harmful ones, or disease germs, and then told people how to deal with them. Modern medicine is founded largely on this knowledge

were compelled by law to sell only pure milk. It was found that yellow-fever germs were carried by a certain species of mosquito; hence where yellow fever was common, great efforts were made to kill off the mosquitoes. So successful was the attempt that yellow fever has been practically stamped out.

The Birth of a New Profession. When the Civil War began there was no nursing service. As calls came from the field for bandages, shirts, towels, and medicines for sick and wounded soldiers, the women met in ladies' aid societies to

help the government by gathering, preparing, and sending these things. In New York there was a very wonderful woman, Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell.[1] She organized the Women's Central Relief Association, and this society asked the government to form a national society to help the soldiers. When the national society was organized, it was called the United States Sanitary Commission. Under its leadership hospitals were opened and nurses were sent into the field to take care of the wounded. They were not trained nurses, for there were no such nurses then; but they did noble work and saved many lives.

The work of the war nurses made people see that nurses were needed also in time of peace. There were then a few hospitals in the country, and in one of them — the New England Hospital for Women and Children in Boston — Linda Richards was trained to be a nurse. She has been called the first trained nurse in the United States. She was graduated in 1873. Soon other nurses were trained and sent out. Women saw that this was a kind of service that they could do especially well. The training given was sometimes very poor, but it grew better and better as time passed. In 1880 there were 15 hospitals which taught nurses, and 157 nurses were given diplomas that year. In 1900 there were 432 schools for nurses and 3456 graduates.

This was important for two reasons. For one thing, it showed women a way of earning their living and helping those who needed help; it gave them another profession

[1] Dr. Blackwell, the first woman physician in the United States, was a friend of Florence Nightingale of England. Miss Nightingale had nursed the soldiers in the Crimean War in Russia a few years before; she gave the American nurses good advice about their task. Miss Dorothea Dix was the superintendent of Civil War nurses. For twenty years before the war Miss Dix had led a movement for the better care of insane people. Under her leadership the first state-supported hospital for the insane was built in New Jersey in 1845.

besides teaching. In the second place, it saved many lives and taught people how to take better care of their bodies. People found out that good nursing is often as important as the doctor's care and advice. Women who were not professional nurses learned from the nurses how to care for their children and families in a better way.

The growth of hospitals was another sign of improving health conditions in these years.[1] In the whole country there were less than a dozen hospitals when the Civil War broke out; but in 1900 there were about five hundred.

Review and Project

1. Show why smallpox was so greatly dreaded in early America among the Indians and the whites.

2. Show the importance of Pasteur's discovery to our modern everyday life.

3. Give a brief floor talk on the topic "Methods of Preventing Epidemics."

4. Can you find out about other diseases to which the ideas of Edward Jenner are now applied?

5. The three great professions were formerly the law, medicine, and the church. How many other professions can you name which have grown up in modern times?

6. What hospital is nearest your home or school? When was it founded? Do you know any interesting facts about its history?

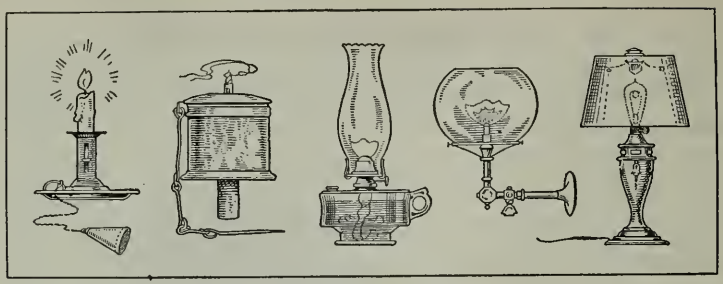
[1] The earliest hospitals in North America were established in Mexico by the Roman Catholic Church. One (the Immaculate Conception) in Mexico City, founded in 1524, and one in Santa Fe, founded in 1531, are still in use. In 1639 a hospital was founded at Quebec, and another in 1642 at Montreal. These hospitals are also still in use. In 1658 the Dutch West India Company founded a shelter for their men when ill, which in time grew to be Bellevue, the oldest hospital in New York City. Blockley, a similar place in Philadelphia, was founded in 1731. Formerly these latter places were not clean, the attendants were not trained, and people of good family never went to them. The first hospital of the modern type was founded by Philadelphia Quakers in 1775.

4. How Invention Changed the Home

How Houses were Lighted in 1865–1900. In the earlier days, as we remember, houses had been lighted by candles or by whale-oil lamps. They gave only a small light, which flickered unpleasantly, requiring constant attention.

A Gushing Oil Well

For a long time people had known of the presence of oil in the ground in different countries, but nobody knew exactly how to use it. In 1859 great quantities were found by E. L. Drake in western Pennsylvania. The region around, including some portions of Ohio and West Virginia, was full of it. Then there was a rush of men to the oil fields. As the oil came from the ground it was too impure to use, but ways were discovered of purifying it and thus making a liquid, called kerosene, which could be burned in lamps. Any number of different kinds of lamps were invented in which the kerosene could be used. In that first year (1859) two thousand barrels of oil were taken from the ground (in 1900 nearly sixty-four million barrels were obtained). Most of this oil was used for lighting. Candles and whale-oil lamps disappeared. Houses were more pleasant in the evening.



The Evolution of the Lamp

The colonists generally used candles, although the use of the whale-oil lamp came in about 1750, when many American ships began to hunt whales. There were over three hundred American ships hunting whales during the Revolution, and over seven hundred as late as 1846. Do you see that the whale-oil lamp was at first shaped to fit into a candlestick, and that the kerosene lamp was an improvement on the whale-oil lamp? The gas lamp was fed from a pipe that ran through the wall; the electric lamp gets its current from a wire likewise coming from the wall. What parts of each way of lighting a room came from the way used just before it? A series of gradual changes of this kind is called an evolution

Flickering was done away with by means of glass chimneys which protected the lighted lamp wick from currents of air.

In the same region where oil was discovered, a gas which would burn was found in the ground. This was carried into houses through pipes and used for lighting. In cities in other parts of the country, gas-making plants had already been built in which an illuminating gas was made from coal. This gas was also carried in pipes and was used (and still is) for lighting and for cooking.[1]

Electric Lights. At the time when the oil lamp was being improved a number of scientists were attempting to make a lamp that would be fed by electricity. Thomas A. Edison, an American, was one of them. Edison made a glass bulb, put a loop of platinum wire in it, pumped all the air out,

[1] In those days matches were not so cheap as they are now. As a substitute for them many people used to roll up small pieces of newspaper and keep a jar or tumbler full of them near the lamp. Such a roll, which was known as a "spill," could be lighted by touching one end to the kitchen fire.

and sealed up the tube air-tight. Then he ran an electric current through the wire, and it gave a bright, steady light. The trouble with the lamp, however, was that it cost too much, for platinum wire is very valuable. Finally Edison discovered that he could use a fine thread of cotton instead of the wire. As cotton could be obtained at no great cost he was able to make lamps very cheaply. In 1879 San Francisco began lighting its streets at night by means of electric lamps invented by Charles F. Brush. In 1882 New York began using Edison's lamps. In a short time a great industry grew up that required thousands of workers; for cities, towns, and private houses were now lighted with electric lamps.

Bathtubs and Plumbing. In 1865 housekeeping was not easy. A few houses had pumps in the kitchen, but in most homes all water used had to be carried in from an out-of-doors pump and kept in buckets until it was needed. People did not use so much water then as they do now, however, for bathing was not so common a habit. Many doctors did not consider it healthful: baths must be taken with great care, they said. It was a general habit to bathe on Saturday night, for people put on their clean clothes for the Sabbath. The habit of bathing grew despite all objections from doctors, and we have seen that city homes began to have bathtubs in the eighties. The better homes were now built with bathrooms. In the nineties sinks and bathrooms became regularly a part of all good houses. This was made possible by the development of the trade of plumbing, which took place late in the century. Great factories were established to make pipes, fixtures, and furnaces for steam-heating. An army of men earned their living by putting these improvements into houses. When people were more comfortable they could do their work better. So the growth of plumbing and steam-heating and the comforts that the plumber brought helped to make the nation's homes better.

UNIT VI. CHANGES IN CULTURE FROM 1865 TO 1900

1. Literature

The Fruit of Leisure. Although there was still so much work to do, in many parts of America the first and most necessary things had now been done. Houses had been built, there were wagon roads and railroads and ships, and the land had been made into farms. There was an abundance of food and clothing, and business was in good running order. Schools and churches had been established, and their teaching had entered into the lives of the people. Some money had been saved, also, and was earning interest. For these reasons there was some leisure in the eighties and nineties, and people could turn their attention more to the things of culture.

After 1865 more Americans attained distinction as artists than ever before in our history. Just why they should develop at this particular time can be explained partly but not fully. Some of them were sons of immigrants; some were sons of American ministers, farmers, harness-makers, and grocers. Some were born in New England, some in the Middle West, and some in the mountain states. Some had artistic training in their younger days, and some did not. Most of them, however, got much of their training in sculpture or music or painting in the schools of Europe.

The people were most interested in literature, since this could reach more people than other forms of art. There were a number of good writers who saw the interesting things about American life and told their readers what they saw. Bret Harte wrote about the miners, the gamblers, and the stage-drivers of the Far West. Edward Eggleston told stories of frontier life in Indiana; his *Hoosier Schoolmaster* deals particularly with school life. There were a great many interesting stories of the South, such as those by

Thomas Nelson Page, Joel Chandler Harris, and F. Hopkinson Smith. Harris gave us Uncle Remus, Brer Rabbit, and Brer Fox, characters everybody ought to know. James Lane Allen wrote about Kentucky. New England was the scene of some of the best stories of William Dean Howells. Samuel L. Clemens (generally known as Mark Twain) wrote accounts of the scrapes that boys got into in the Mississippi Valley, in such comical and interesting stories as *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*. He told of the picturesque days of river travel, of the great white steamboats that went up and down the river, and of the quaint and amusing people who were to be seen then. His boys found caves and had great adventures in them, and they had to deal with difficult grown-ups, just like boys and girls of today. Perhaps this is why Mark Twain's stories of child life are read year after year with never-ending joy.

Some of the stories for boys and girls which were written between 1865 and 1900 were read in every nook and cranny of the country. Besides *Uncle Remus*, there were *Little Women*, by Louisa M. Alcott; *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, by Frances Hodgson Burnett; and the poems of Eugene Field and James Whitcomb Riley. Big folk, as well as smaller folk, loved Riley's "Little Orphant Annie":

Little Orphant Annie's come to our house to stay,
An' wash the cups an' saucers up, an' brush the crumbs away,
An' shoo the chickens off the porch, an' dust the hearth, an' sweep,
An' make the fire, an' bake the bread, an' earn her board-an'-keep;
An' all us other childern, when the supper things is done,
We set around the kitchen fire an' has the mostest fun
A-list'nin' to the witch-tales 'at Annie tells about,
An' the Gobble-uns 'at gits you
Ef you
Don't
Watch
Out!

During this time American magazines, which had begun earlier in the century, became better than ever; and there were more of them. *The Atlantic Monthly, Harper's, Scribner's, The Century* and others were quite as good as similar magazines in Europe.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Make a list of the authors of this period, and after each write (1) the field in which he wrote, (2) the works mentioned in the book (from memory) and (3) all the other books you can find by the same author. The card catalogue at the library is your best help in this. If you do not know how to use it ask someone to show you.

2. Explain why a new country is slow in producing great artists.

3. See if you can think of some places and times in the years 1865–1900 which would have been interesting for some writer to tell about as Mark Twain told about the Mississippi. How long a list can you make? Can you explain why each place on your list would have been a good story-ground?

4. How many authors mentioned here are still read and liked in your class or in your school? Why?

5. Besides the authors mentioned here, a host of others wrote for older people. Can you make a list of poets and others who were widely read at that time? If you can borrow a high-school history of American literature, that will help.

2. Education

The Elementary School. After the close of the Civil War many people felt that the elementary schools ought to be greatly improved. There were several reasons for this:

It had been the practice to improve the schools from the earliest colonial times.

The country was becoming wealthier and could afford to spend more money on its schools.

The United States was lagging behind the leading European countries in education.

The members of the labor unions demanded better education for their children.

Streams of immigrants were coming into the country. Most of them were illiterate; that is to say, they could neither read nor write. People felt that it was dangerous to allow so many illiterates to become citizens and help to govern the country.

When the boys and girls who had been in school before 1860 grew up to be men and women, they noticed a great change in the schools which their children attended. The buildings were larger and were better heated and ventilated. Not so many pupils were crowded into one room. In more and more places each year the old "district school" was given up — the school where pupils of all ages, from the beginners to the oldest, studied and recited in one room to one teacher. The teachers too were better after 1865, because normal schools were becoming common, where teachers were trained for their work. The school year was made longer, although doubtless it seemed to the pupil long enough already. Books were improved by being made more interesting, and in many states they were provided for the pupil without his having to pay for them. The purpose of all these changes was to give the largest possible number of pupils the best possible education.

New studies were gradually introduced here and there. Woodworking became common in the larger cities; sewing, cooking, and other domestic sciences were introduced. More and more pupils came to the schools. In particular, more girls came. In earlier times girls had very seldom been given the advantages of school education. In fact, a man who finished his schooling in 1801 said that he had seen only three girls in school in his whole life, and they went to school

only in the afternoon to learn how to write. This condition changed gradually before the Civil War, and faster afterwards; in fact, by 1900 more than half the pupils in the elementary schools were girls.

The High Schools. The schools that we now call high schools existed before the Civil War, but there were not many of them. After 1865, however, parents and children more and more urgently demanded education beyond the elementary school. During the seventies, eighties, and nineties, cities all over the country were building high schools. Where a few hundred boys and girls went to them before, many thousands went by 1900. Business offices were calling for educated young men and women; business schools were being started here and there. Courses in commercial arithmetic, stenography, and bookkeeping were added to the high-school courses. The use of the typewriter in business was increasing so fast that the high schools in some places offered courses in typewriting.

The Colleges. There were three important changes that affected the colleges after 1865:

Many states established colleges to teach agriculture and such scientific subjects as bridge-building, road-building, the uses of electricity and machinery, the construction of buildings, and so on. The United States government contributed land to the states for this purpose.

Girls began to go to college, just as boys for many years had done. Colleges for women were established: Vassar in 1861, Smith in 1871, Wellesley in 1875, and Bryn Mawr in 1885. Men's colleges, such as Harvard and Columbia, started courses for women, and most of the Western universities admitted men and women alike.

As a result of the opening of new schools and colleges and the establishment of new courses, and as a result of the

The George Washington High School, New York

A recent type of city school. Compare the size of this single high-school building with the entire College of William and Mary as it was in 1732 (see page 67)

greater amount of wealth in the country, the increased confidence in the value of education, and laws compelling children to go to school, pupils poured into the schools as never before in American history. By 1900 nearly sixteen million pupils were enrolled in the elementary schools.[1]

Schools in the South. The end of the Civil War found the educational system of the South in wretched condition. The people were too poor to spend money on schools. The South was more thinly settled than the North, so that the pupils lived longer distances from the school buildings. The roads, moreover, were in bad condition. There were a great many poor negroes to be looked out for. Illiteracy

[1] Including elementary, high-school, college, and other students, there were over 17,500,000 in all. This was more than the entire population of the United States when Van Buren was president.

grew fast. So it came about that the South had a hard struggle from 1865 to 1900 to get its schools started.

Much help was obtained from the North. In 1867 George Peabody gave $2,000,000 to help Southern education, and some years afterwards John F. Slater and Daniel Hand gave large amounts for the same purpose. The Southern states themselves raised money. Schools for negro children were established, in which there were nearly three million pupils in 1900. Trade schools were started for the education of the negro in carpentry, masonry, agriculture, and similar work.

By 1900 the South was well on its feet again. There was more money spent on education. People were demanding better schools for their children. Better schoolhouses were built. More pupils went to school more days in the year, and illiteracy began to grow less.

Project and Activities

1. Explain the changes that occurred in elementary education between 1865 and 1900.

2. Compare education in the United States in the early nineties with education in the colonies in 1763 with respect to kinds of schools, studies, buildings, teachers, length of school term, books, and education for girls.

3. Show the handicaps to education in the South just after 1865. Show also how many of these were overcome by 1900.

4. Read "A Yankee Teacher in the South," in *The Progress of a United People* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 9–15. Here you will find an excellent account of what schools were like in Charleston, South Carolina, in the late sixties.

5. Booker T. Washington tells the story of his life in *Up from Slavery*. After reading the book, or parts of it, tell the class about this leader of his race.

3. The Fine Arts

Painters, Sculptors, and Architects. Several American painters at this time achieved no small renown. George Inness painted outdoor scenes, such as the Berkshire Hills in Massachusetts; James A. M. Whistler was an original and clever artist, whose picture of his mother is known everywhere; historical scenes and literary scenes were pictured by Edwin A. Abbey and John La Farge, with great care for the accuracy of everything that they painted (notice again the picture of the American army at Valley Forge on page 107).[1] Other men, too many of them to name, drew pictures of famous people, of Indians, of animals, and all sorts of things.

Some of the best statuary in America today was done by the sculptors of this time. The statue of Lincoln which so many people go to see in Chicago was made by Augustus Saint-Gaudens; "The Minute Man," commemorating the battle at Concord in 1775, was the work of Daniel C. French; Frederick W. MacMonnies made many busts and statues, particularly a group for an exhibition in Chicago in 1893.[2] Other men made artistic things of clay and bronze which are to be found in every state in the Union.

In 1893 there was held an exposition, or "world's fair," at Chicago to celebrate the four-hundredth anniversary of

[1] Inness was born in New York in 1825 and died in 1894; Whistler was born in Massachusetts in 1834 and died in 1903; Abbey was born in Pennsylvania in 1852 and died in 1911; La Farge was born in New York in 1835 and died in 1910. Most American painters, sculptors, and musicians of this period were trained partly in France, which therefore had a great deal of influence on American art.

[2] Saint-Gaudens was born in Ireland in 1848, came to the United States when he was a child, and died in 1907; French was born in New Hampshire in 1850; MacMonnies was born in Brooklyn in 1863.

the landing of Columbus.[1] When the plans came to be made, it was found that American architects, painters, and sculptors would have an opportunity to make the exposition buildings the most beautiful seen in the United States up to that time.

Progress in Music. We have seen (p. 261) that there was a growing interest in music before the Civil War. After the war it increased still more: new orchestras were organized, and more schools introduced music into their courses of study. The most famous orchestra of this period was the Boston Symphony, founded in 1881.[2] Colleges began to have departments of music, and boys and girls were often made to study the piano whether they wanted to or not, because it was fashionable to know something about music. The people seemed to be determined that everyone should at least have a chance to understand the subject.

Very few Americans have written music which has been as beautiful as that written by Europeans. The first American to gain a wide reputation was Professor John K. Paine of Harvard University. Edward A. MacDowell was another.

[1] The exposition was planned for 1892, but had to be delayed for a year. Some of the buildings were planned by Richard Morris Hunt (1828–1895), one of the most famous architects of his day. Hunt had studied and worked in Europe and had designed many famous buildings after his return in 1855. He planned the addition to the Capitol in Washington, and the base of Bartholdi's great statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," in New York Harbor. Another great architect of this period was Daniel H. Burnham, who was head architect of the World's Fair of 1893.

[2] One of the most famous conductors of orchestras in the early days was Theodore Thomas, who was born in Germany in 1835 and died in Chicago in 1905. Thomas tells this story about his early experiences. To get people to come out to hear good music, he had to perform surprising things, or "stunts." Once at an outdoor concert he sent a player behind the audience into the bushes. At a certain point the player was to blow on a brass instrument. Unhappily a policeman saw the player and thought he was trying to disturb the concert. Thereupon the officer started to arrest the musician. The musician ran out of the bushes and up the aisle toward the stage, blowing his notes as he ran, and the policeman ran after him as fast as he could go!

Like Paine, he was professor of music at a university (Columbia). Hardly less well known were George W. Chadwick, head of the New England Conservatory of Music, and Horatio Parker, professor of music at Yale University.[1]

The Civil War produced a number of songs that are still sung. The Northern soldiers marched to "John Brown's Body," and the Southern troops trudged along to the lively air of "Dixie," written by Dan Emmett. Julia Ward Howe wrote the beautiful words of the "Battle Hymn of the Republic" to the air of "John Brown's Body," and during the war J. R. Randall gave to the South the stirring words of "Maryland, My Maryland." Stephen C. Foster wrote a number of simple and beautiful songs that sound like folk songs: "Suwannee River," "Massa's in the Cold, Cold Ground," "Old Kentucky Home," and others. These songs never lose their charm.

Review and Project

1. Hold a definition match on these words: epidemic, germ, reservoir, vaccination, kerosene, gas plant, platinum, spill, plumber, peg lamp, leisure, elementary school, stenography, illiteracy, exposition, folk song.

2. Find a copy of Whistler's portrait of his mother. Can you explain why it is so popular?

3. How many of the songs mentioned on this page do you sing in your school? What other songs of the same authorship or period do you sing?

4. Do you know what honor was paid to "The Battle Hymn of the Republic" in 1917–1918?

5. Ask someone to play for you MacDowell's "To a Wild Rose." Do you like it? Why?

[1] Paine was born in Maine in 1839 and died in 1906; MacDowell was born in New York in 1861 and died in 1908; Chadwick was born in Massachusetts in 1854; Parker was born in Massachusetts in 1863.

4. How People became more Fair to One Another

Changes in the Rights of Women. We remember that before the Civil War many women complained that the laws of the various states were unfair. People were too much concerned about slavery and about the war to pay attention to such subjects during the fifties and sixties, and for some years afterwards not much change was made. During the nineties, however, a great many improvements were brought about. Since each state made its own changes and since no two states acted exactly alike, it is impossible to mention everything that was done. In general, these changes related to such things as property rights, the care of children, occupations, education, and voting.

In earlier days a married woman could not control her own property. Her husband could manage it, collect any rents or interest, and spend the money as he chose. All he had to do was to give her such food, clothing, and shelter as he thought proper. By 1900 this condition was changed in most states, but not in all. The laws were so modified that the wife could own and control her own property.

Another peculiar arrangement was that about the care of children. It had been the law that the father could take charge of the children, decide what education they should have, take any money they earned, and manage any property they might have. All this could be done without even talking with the mother about it. Very little change was made in these laws even as late as 1900. In a few states, however, the father and mother had equal control over the children.

We have seen that women entered a new profession, that of nursing, after the Civil War. The number of women who were teaching increased greatly in each decade. Many states used to have laws which forbade a woman to be a physician, a lawyer, or a minister. These laws were rapidly

Clara Barton Frances E. Willard

The Red Cross was organized in Switzerland during the American Civil War, and our country was too busy to join. Clara Barton (1821–1912) at that time was helping to nurse the soldiers. She went to Europe in 1870 and did the same work during a war between France and Germany. Then she came home. She was ashamed of her country because it was not a member of the Red Cross. She lectured and explained until in 1882 the United States became a member. She was president of the American branch, and under her leadership the Red Cross began to help peace-time sufferers as well as wounded soldiers. The Women's Christian Temperance Union was formed in 1874. For many years Frances Willard (1839–1898) was its president. The society grew rapidly. Its members persuaded many states to pass laws which said that school children must be taught why liquor hurt the human body. The "W. C. T. U." also persuaded many children and grown-ups to sign a pledge to drink no intoxicating liquors. This society doubtless did much to bring about prohibition in 1918.

changed during the nineties. Women began to enter these professions and many other lines of work. More and more universities opened their doors to women. By 1900, although few women were in the professions outside of nursing and teaching, a woman was allowed to do almost anything for which she had brains and energy.

The Humanitarians. During these years there were a great many people in the United States who gave their lives to the effort of making human beings happier, better, and

more useful. They did not work for themselves, or for a political party, or for a church (although most of them belonged to some church and believed heartily in what it taught): they worked for humanity, for the human race; so they were called humanitarians.

Henry Ward Beecher was a preacher in Brooklyn for nearly forty years. He preached about slavery, temperance, clean politics, and all manner of things. People came from great distances to hear him, and his printed sermons were read all over the country. Another preacher whose words were listened to and read widely was Phillips Brooks of Boston. These men and others like them took a great interest in improving the condition of the poor and unfortunate.

There was so much poverty in America now that many people tried to find the best ways of helping the poor. The great cities, with their colonies of immigrants, called for patient and intelligent persons to show them how to live. Beginning in 1887 some humanitarians established what were called settlement houses; that is, they hired houses in the poorer parts of some of the big cities, such as Boston, New York, and Chicago, and went there to live. They sent nurses about to the sick, held kindergarten classes for the small children, started clubs and gymnasiums for the boys and girls, and provided entertainments for the men and women. The most famous settlement house was established in 1889 in Chicago, by Jane Addams. It is known as Hull House. Others were the South End House in Boston and the Henry Street Settlement in New York City. All these have been centers of light and hope for poor people.

This spirit of helping other people and of being more friendly with one's neighbors caused a multitude of societies to be formed. There were lodges and fraternities of all sorts. Each week or month the members paid a little money into a common treasury. Then when one member was ill

or had trouble in his family, money was taken from the treasury to help him. Sometimes these societies insured their members. Other people organized patriotic societies of one sort or another. Others started clubs to make their towns more honest, clean, or beautiful. It was an era in which Americans learned how much more can be done by organizing people into groups than by working alone. Women, especially, began to form clubs in which they could talk over their problems and make plans for better things. They raised money for countless charities and learned to manage them. They began to see how and why more changes should be made in American ways; and more than ever they wanted the right to vote, so that they could help to bring them to pass.

Review and Project

1. What changes in the position of women had come about by 1900? Were these really more just than the former conditions?

2. Can you describe the work of the great humanitarians spoken of in this unit? Can you name five great humanitarians of today?

3. Do you know of any societies with humanitarian objects to which people you know now belong? See how long a list the class can make on the blackboard.

4. Take a secret ballot of what the members of the class want to do when they are grown up. The girls should mark their ballots with a *G*. How many girls want to do something that women did not do in 1865?

UNIT VII. NEW ISSUES GROW OUT OF THE NEW CONDITIONS, 1876–1900

We now know something about the many new things that were changing America so rapidly after the Civil War. What happened in the field of politics while all these changes were occurring? Who were the presidents? What did they do? What problems did they have to meet?

1. What were the Main Political Questions between 1876 and 1896?

The Four Main Questions. For twenty years after 1876 four questions were most frequently before the American political parties. Other questions came up now and then, as we shall see, but these came up nearly all the time.

1. When the United States had extra money in its treasury, how should the money be spent?

2. When presidents appointed government officials, whom should they appoint? Should they appoint their own *friends*? Or should they try to find the *best* person for the office, regardless of who he was? This is called the civil-service question, because these officials were in the *service* of the government and in the *civil* service (that is, the service which was not naval or military).

3. When goods were imported into the United States from abroad, should a high tariff be levied on them or a low one?

4. Should the government attempt to control the railroads and other big corporations? Should it make them look out for the welfare of their employees? Should it have anything to say about what the railroads should charge on their trains? Or should the government take its hands off and let the corporations do as they pleased?

Rutherford B. Hayes, 1877–1881. The first question that President Hayes (see page 347) had to settle happened not to be one of the big four: it concerned the South. In two of the Southern states there were soldiers who had been there since the war. Hayes thought it was time that the troops came out of the South and let the Southern states attend to their own affairs. Accordingly he ordered the troops out.

Hayes's Secretary of the Treasury was an able man, John Sherman of Ohio. Sherman used as much money as he could

for reducing the huge debt which had been piled up during the war. He also found that people were suspicious of the value of the paper money which was called "greenbacks." For example, a storekeeper would sell more goods for five dollars in gold than he would for five dollars in greenbacks. To make the greenbacks as good as gold, Congress passed a law in 1875 that any greenback brought to the Treasury could be exchanged for a gold dollar on or after January 2, 1879. This exchange is called specie payment. Sherman then gathered up all the gold he could, to be ready for the exchange when the time came. When it was seen that the government would give gold for paper, almost everybody kept the paper, because it was easier to handle. Storekeepers then sold as much for five dollars in paper as they did for five dollars in gold.[1]

Hayes was very careful to appoint good men as government officers. Instead of appointing only his friends, he tried to get the best men. His political supporters did not like this; they had voted for him in the hope that he would give them good positions.

Garfield and Arthur, 1881–1885. At the end of Hayes's term the Republicans elected James A. Garfield president and Chester A. Arthur vice president. Soon after Garfield became president he was shot by a man who had hoped to get a government job. Then Arthur succeeded Garfield.

The people were so shocked at Garfield's death that they demanded a better system for choosing government workers. A civil-service act had been passed in 1871, but it had not been enforced. Now (in 1883), another civil-service act was

[1] Some people thought that there were too many of the greenbacks, and so some of them were "retired." That is, when someone brought paper money to the Treasury to be exchanged, the bills were destroyed. In this way the amount of paper money of this sort — the greenbacks — was brought down to $346,681,000. This was not a large amount for so large a country. For another side of the greenback story see page 438.

James A. Garfield Chester A. Arthur

Garfield (1831–1881) was a native of Ohio. He graduated from Williams College in 1856 and became a teacher. He was president of Hiram College from 1857 to 1859, served in the Civil War, and then represented his state in Congress for seventeen years. Arthur (1830–1886) was a politician who had been Collector of the Port in New York City from 1871 to 1878. People thought that he would oppose civil-service reform when he succeeded Garfield, but he surprised them by helping that cause more than its best friends could have hoped

passed, and this is still in effect. Under it a government officer gets his position as the result of an examination. For example, if a clerk is to be appointed in a post office, all persons who wish to have the position take an examination. Then the clerk is appointed from those who stand highest in the test.[1] This law is called the Pendleton Act.

During President Arthur's time the income of the government was very large — larger than the cost of running affairs. The surplus was used to a considerable extent to reduce the Civil War debt.

[1] The system was introduced slowly. In Arthur's time about sixteen thousand positions were filled by civil-service examinations; in 1928 about 432,000 were filled in this way.

Project and Activity

1. Make a list of all the presidents from 1829 to 1885. Place on a time line the dates of the administration of each, also some significant events of each administration, and the state in which each president was born. Can you do this from memory?

2. Fix in your mind the four big questions before the political parties between 1876 and 1900.

3. Show how John Sherman answered the question that concerned money.

4. Explain what was done during Arthur's administration to answer the question about the appointment of government officials.

5. Name the presidents who died in office before 1885. Explain the circumstances connected with the death of each.

6. Read James Morgan's treatment of Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur in *Our Presidents*, pp. 186–196, 197–207, 208–214.

2. What were the Main Problems confronting Cleveland and Harrison?

Three Hard-Fought Presidential Elections. The presidential elections of 1884, 1888, and 1892 were fiercely fought between the Democrats and the Republicans. In 1884 the contest was between Grover Cleveland, a Democrat, and James G. Blaine, a Republican. Cleveland won the election by a narrow margin and entered office on March 4, 1885. In 1888 Cleveland and Benjamin Harrison were the candidates. Harrison won. In 1892[1] Cleveland and Harrison were

[1] In the election of 1892 the "Australian," or secret-ballot, system was widely used. Before this a voter had marked his ballot openly — with his friends about him, if he chose. In this way men could hire voters to mark their ballots for a certain candidate, and watch to see that it was done. Beginning in 1892 the voter had to take his ballot and go alone into a place looking somewhat like a telephone booth. There he marked the ballot and then put it into a box. Nobody could be sure how he voted. This system discouraged buying votes, because the buyer could not be absolutely sure that the voter had marked his ballot as he had promised.

Grover Cleveland Benjamin Harrison

Cleveland was a New Yorker who won fame as a reform mayor of Buffalo and a reform governor of the state before his nomination for the presidency. He was born in 1837 and died in 1908. Harrison, the grandson of William Henry Harrison, was born in Ohio in 1833 and died in 1901. He graduated at Miami University and served in the Civil War. After being president he served as United States senator and on several peace conferences and boards

again the contenders, and this time Cleveland won. Hence the country had a Democratic president from 1885 to 1889 and from 1893 to 1897, with a Republican president between during the years 1889–1893.

Spending the Government's Extra Money. During Cleveland's first term and during nearly all of Harrison's term the government had a surplus; that is, its income was more than its expenses. Cleveland's idea was to be very frugal in spending money and reduce the taxes, thus doing away with the surplus. Harrison and his friends believed in keeping up the taxes and spending the surplus. During his administration large amounts of money were spent for new post-office buildings, for deepening and widening rivers and harbors, and for increasing the pensions given to veterans

of the Civil War. During Cleveland's second term the income became so small that it was not big enough to pay expenses. But the expenses which Harrison had started kept going on; hence the government had to borrow money for a time to pay the bills.

The Troublesome Silver Question. While Cleveland and Harrison at different times were at the head of the government, a very difficult question arose — a question so difficult that even the members of Congress in many cases were unable to understand it. To reach the beginning of the matter we must go back to the time of Hayes. At that time business was prospering, and more pieces of money were needed to "make change" and to use in ordinary buying and selling. At the same time large silver mines were being opened in the West. Plenty of silver was at hand. Why not coin all this silver into dollars and half dollars and small change? In 1878 Congress decided to have between two million and four million dollars' worth coined every month. President Hayes did not like the law; neither did Arthur. President Cleveland, although of the other party, agreed with them.

When Harrison came in, however, he and his friends were willing to coin still more silver; hence in 1890 they passed a law which provided that the government should buy an amount almost equal to all the silver mined in the United States. And then two things happened:

More money was in circulation than was needed to "make change" and to do business with.

The price of silver went down and further down until the value of the silver in a silver dollar was only sixty cents. People became suspicious of silver money. They tried to get gold instead. Business men were uneasy because, they said, they did not know what might happen to the value of the money that they received day by day.

When Cleveland came in the second time, he demanded that the coinage of silver be stopped. Following his advice, Congress repealed the law in 1893. In general, Eastern members of Congress helped Cleveland in this, whether they were Republicans or Democrats. Western and Southern congressmen opposed. In fact, the West and the South were so sure that Cleveland and the East were wrong that we shall hear of this troublesome silver question again.

Civil Service and the Bothersome Tariff Question. Both Cleveland and Harrison wished to continue the new civil-service examination system. They succeeded. Harrison put a young man named Theodore Roosevelt on the committee that had charge of the civil service. Roosevelt helped a great deal. Cleveland saw to it that more and more offices were filled by the examination scheme. By 1897 the plan was in full swing. It has never been changed.

Cleveland and the Democrats generally favored a low tariff; Harrison and the Republicans stood for a high one. The farmers, especially in the South, wanted it low; the manufacturers and their friends wanted it high. When Harrison was in office the Republicans passed the high McKinley tariff in 1890. The people did not like this, and voted the Democrats in when the next election came. Then the Democrats passed the Wilson-Gorman tariff in 1894. The people did not like this either, and voted the Democrats out as soon as they had a chance. We shall hear of the tariff again.

Review and Enrichment

1. Add the presidents from 1885 to 1897 to your time line. Show the dates of the administration of each.

2. Show how the Australian ballot system made for more secret and honest voting.

3. Argue for or against Harrison's idea of spending the government's money.

4. Tell in your own words the ups and downs of the silver question during the administrations of Hayes, Cleveland, and Harrison.

5. Explain the attitude of Harrison and Cleveland toward the civil-service system and the tariff question.

6. Read "Grover Cleveland" (pp. 215–226) and "Benjamin Harrison" (pp. 227–230), in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan.

3. How the Discontent of the Early Nineties Arose and Spread

Complaints of the Small Traders, Farmers, and Laboring Men. There was a great deal of dissatisfaction in the United States in the early eighteen-nineties. Some of these complaints can be easily understood. They were voiced mainly by the small business man, the farmer, and organized labor.

The man who did a small business in the average town or city, especially in the West, deeply resented the injustice of the railroads and the great trusts. He had expected that the Sherman Anti-Trust Law (see page 390) would protect him from the big corporations that sometimes crushed him. When the law was not enforced and amounted to little, he was discouraged.

The farmer had complained most of the time for twenty years. The prices which he got for his produce were growing smaller and still smaller. He had to grow more crops and work longer hours to keep his head above water. During the eighteen-seventies and eighteen-eighties there had been a good deal of distress in the West. In some places the rainfall was too little. Grasshoppers came. In other places more food was grown than could be eaten or sold. Farmers could not sell their crops for enough to pay for planting them. Some farmers complained that the railroads charged too

much for carrying their crops.[1] Some thought that the government ought to make a great deal more silver and paper money, because they believed that prices would go up if this were done.

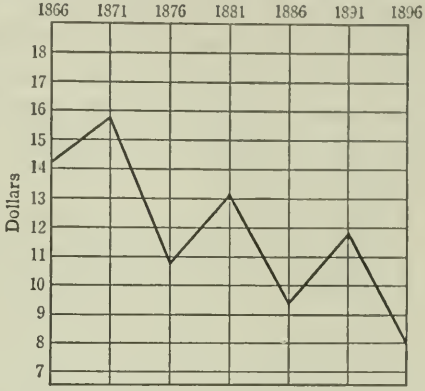
The Western Farmer; New Political Parties. Shortly after the Civil War the West began to demand that something be done to help the farmer. Even as early as 1868, when General Grant was elected president for the first time, many Westerners tried to have the government issue more paper money. In 1876 the Westerners organized the "Greenback" party for the same purpose. This having failed to make much progress, about 1890 the Western farmers started another, called the People's party, or Populists. The Populists called for many reforms. For one thing, they thought that the government could buy and coin the silver which was being mined in the Rocky Mountain states. In this way the miners would get a market for their silver, and more money would be put in circulation. We shall see later what resulted when farmers from both the South and the West began to join the Populist party.

The Grange. The complaint of the farmer against the railroad was taken up in a different way.

Soon after the end of the Civil War a man named Oliver H. Kelley started the Patrons of Husbandry, more often called

[1] The railroads sometimes, in trying to get the business from one another, reduced their rates to almost nothing when two lines ran between the same places. This was called "cutthroat competition." To make up for charging some people less than their services cost, the railroads then charged very high rates in regions where there was only one railway line. As a result of these conditions, they often charged more for a short haul (that is, taking something a short distance) than for a long haul. They had a regular rate for most people, but reduced it for those who used their railroads a great deal; so the poor farmer often paid more than the rich manufacturer. When laws were passed against these unequal rates, the railroads got around the law by charging everyone the same rate, but giving a "rebate" to the favored shippers; that is, paying back part of the money.

the Grange. This was a society which was intended to include all people interested in farming. Kelley hoped that each town or village would have a branch society, and that the farmers and their wives and children would meet every little while to talk over the farmers' troubles and also to have entertainments — singing, speaking, plays, and so on. The Western farmers liked the Grange idea. It gave them a chance to have a good time, to see their neighbors, and to pick up some new ideas. Within a few years hundreds of thousands of people had become Grangers.



The Farmer's Reward

This diagram, or graph, shows the average value of an acre of farm crops (corn, wheat, oats, barley, rye, buckwheat, potatoes, hay, tobacco, and cotton) from 1866 to 1896. Not every year is shown; every fifth year is taken as a sample year. What was the general tendency in the reward that the farmer got for his work? Do you see any relation between the facts shown in this graph and the discontent in the West from 1866 to 1896?[1]

At the very time when the Grange was growing so fast, the Western farmers were having a hard time of it, as we have seen. To better their condition, the Grangers decided to make the railroads charge lower rates for carrying farm products to the cities. They passed laws in state legislatures which fixed the amounts that the railroads might charge. But the railroads crossed many states, of course. In some states there were Granger laws to control the railroads;

[1] The figures (from Guetter and McKinley's *Economic Growth of the United States*, p. 30) from which this graph was made are as follows:

1866	$14.17	1881	$13.10	1891	$11.76
1871	15.74	1886	9.41	1896	7.94
1876	10.80				

in others there were none. Hence the farmer decided to go to Washington and try to get a law about railroads which should cover the whole United States. This is how the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 began. The Grangers were not the only people who were interested in getting this law passed, but they were more active than anyone else. The law was passed on February 4, 1887. It contained three important parts:

The railroads must not charge unreasonable rates.

They must not charge one person more than another.

A group of five men was appointed, called the Interstate Commerce Commission. These men were to have an office in Washington and to hear complaints against the railroads and see that the railroads obeyed the law.

This law made matters somewhat better for the farmers after a while. But the workers in mills and factories were still unhappy, and used the strike as a means of getting higher wages and better treatment. In 1894 one of the greatest strikes ever known in America failed completely. Laborers all over the country were disappointed. When the strike was over, President Cleveland appointed a committee to see which side was right. After looking into the facts the committee reported that both sides were partly in the right. This left the matter as unsettled as ever.

Business and the Panic of 1893. The small traders, farmers, and laboring men were no more disturbed in the early nineties than the larger business men. The fact was that business was bad, especially in 1893 and 1894. Manufacturers were afraid to make goods because the storekeepers would not buy. The storekeepers would not buy because the people were purchasing as few goods as possible. And the public did not spend money because the factories were running part time or were closed completely. Wages were being cut down, and workmen had little money to spend.

Business men who had been prosperous found themselves without a penny, and banks by the hundreds stopped business.

Placing the Blame and Suggesting a Remedy. The laborers in the manufacturing cities and the farmers and small business men of the South and West laid the blame on falling prices. And they laid the blame for falling prices on the East, especially on the big business men of that section. Hence these discontented people added their numbers to the People's party. This party intended, among other things, to right the farmer's wrongs by raising prices. Now the trouble with falling prices was just this:

Suppose a farmer borrows $1000 to buy tools and machinery. If his potatoes sell at a dollar a bushel, he must raise a thousand bushels to pay his debt. But suppose prices keep falling until potatoes bring only fifty cents a bushel. The farmer must now perform the hard work of raising two thousand bushels of potatoes to pay his debt. *We might say that his debt had really doubled.* The Populists had a remedy for the trouble. It was to coin all the silver of the Western mines. This would increase the amount of money; people would pay higher prices, because they would have more money; and the farmer's debt would not grow so fast.

The people of the East, especially the business men, laid the blame on the West and South. They reasoned somewhat as follows: "The West borrowed money from us. Now they wish to flood the country with silver dollars that contain only about fifty cents' worth of silver. Then they will pay us back in these cheap coins." Hence the East wished to keep down the amount of silver money.

The Hard-Fought Campaign of 1896. When the year 1896 came round, the Populists and the Democrats practically combined, nominating William J. Bryan for president. Bryan favored the coinage of more silver. The

Republicans nominated William McKinley, who opposed the greater coinage of silver and thought our problems would be solved by a higher protective tariff. After a bitterly fought campaign McKinley was elected. The East was victorious.

As soon as McKinley was in power he led his party in passing the Dingley tariff law of 1897. This act levied high duties on imported goods. A little later (in 1900) the Republicans passed a law which made the gold dollar the standard for measuring money values, just as the foot is the standard for measuring length. The silver men of the West had indeed lost their battle for silver. But soon after, the currency was enlarged by new supplies of gold. Then, owing to good crops and good foreign and home markets, the country became very prosperous.

Review

1. Divide a sheet of paper into four columns and put into these columns the troubles of (1) the farmers, (2) the small business men, (3) the laborers, and (4) the large business men during the seventies, eighties, and nineties. Who had the most troubles? Why?

2. On another sheet, or below this list of troubles, put the remedies that each class of people secured. Which class was most successful in getting help for its troubles?

3. Imagine that you are a lawyer sent by the Grange to a state legislature to get some remedy for their troubles. Make a speech in which you tell about the troubles of your friends the farmers, and urge the remedies that you think will help them.

4. Imagine yourself a senator from a Western state explaining the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 to the people who elected you. In your speech, which is limited to five minutes, tell them how this act will better things.

5. Explain why small business men favored the passage of the Interstate Commerce Act and the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890.

6. Make a list of the business panics that occurred up to 1894. Compare their causes and results.

7. Give a talk on the subject "The Conditions and the Desires of the East, West, and South in 1894."

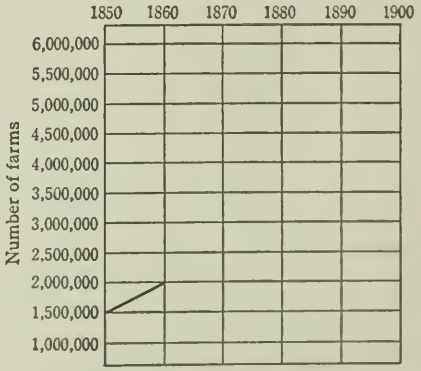
Project and Enrichment

1. Would you have voted for McKinley in 1896 or for Bryan? Give reasons for your answer.

2. Sometimes corporations gave favored members stock for which they did not pay, but which drew interest just the same. This was called "watered stock." Was this practice fair to the investors who had no "watered stock"?

3. *Resolved*, That the difficulties of the Middle and Far West in the seventies, eighties, and nineties were due to frontier conditions, and not to railroads or to "money kings."

4. This graph, or diagram, shows the rise in the number of farms in the United States from 1850 to 1860. Copy the base lines neatly and, using the table below, finish the graph to show the increase in farms to 1900.



American Farms, 1850–1900

NUMBER OF FARMS IN THE UNITED STATES (IN ROUND NUMBERS)

1850	1,500,000
1860	2,000,000
1870	2,500,000
1880	4,000,000
1890	4,500,000
1900	5,750,000

5. Make a graph similar to the one above, based on the following table, to show the rise in the production of silver: the horizontal lines to show the ounces of silver (500,000 ounces for each rise) and the vertical lines to show the five-year periods between 1865 and 1900.

OUNCES OF SILVER PRODUCED IN THE UNITED STATES
(IN ROUND NUMBERS)

1865	8,500,000	1885	32,000,000
1870	13,000,000	1890	54,500,000
1875	24,500,000	1895	55,500,000
1880	30,500,000	1900	57,500,000

Before Leaving Division Five

1. Debate one or more of these subjects:
   - *a. Resolved*, That the organization and work of the Ku-Klux Klan was needed and right in Reconstruction days.
   - *b. Resolved*, That education should have been made a condition to the negro's right to vote.
   - *c. Resolved*, That the special land grants to the railroads were wrong and un-American in principle.
   - *d. Resolved*, That the trusts which were organized in the eighties and nineties had more advantages than disadvantages for the country as a whole.

2. Prepare the following for your notebook:
   - *a.* A time line on which you show the presidential administrations between 1865 and 1900. Make this as complete as you are able to do with the material at your command.
   - *b.* A statement of about two hundred words in length about each of the following: Cyrus W. Field, Grover Cleveland, Thomas A. Edison, Clara Barton, William McKinley, Henry Ward Beecher, John Sherman, Alexander Graham Bell.
   - *c.* A brief statement of the importance of the following:
     (1) 1867, purchase of Alaska.
     (2) 1869, completion of the first railroad to the Pacific.
     (3) 1876, invention of the telephone.
     (4) 1881, organization of the American Federation of Labor.
     (5) 1887, Interstate Commerce Act.
     (6) 1890, Sherman Anti-Trust Law.
   - *d.* A *Hall of Fame* for Division Five. Select the names to be included in the *Hall* as you have done for the other divisions. It might be well to have a main *Hall* and a minor *Hall*, the former containing not over ten names.
   - *e.* The charts, diagrams, and graphs that you have made and the pictures you have collected while you were studying Division Five.

f. A map, as follows:
(1) Title: The Admission of States to 1900.
(2) Use an outline map of the United States.
(3) Show the following:
(*a*) Each state in 1900, with the date of admission to the Union. Color the original thirteen states one color and give the date when each ratified the Constitution.
(*b*) The capital of each state and a few main cities.
(*c*) The territories in 1900.
(*d*) The chief physical features.
(*e*) Place a heavy line of a color of your own selection round the states that were admitted between 1789 and 1829, a line of a different color round those that were admitted between 1829 and 1865, and a line of another color round those that were admitted between 1865 and 1900.

3. Know or be able to do the following:
a. Give a floor talk on
(1) Significant changes in industry between 1865 and 1900.
(2) Chief discoveries, inventions, and improvements between 1865 and 1900.
(3) The Great West in the eighties.
(4) Rise of the American city.
(5) Educational, cultural, and social changes between 1865 and 1900.
b. Identify, in a sentence or two, Garfield, Arthur, Harrison, O. H. Kelley, William F. Cody, Tilden, Hayes, Johnson, Barnum, Edward Eggleston, George Peabody, John F. Slater, Daniel Hand, Joel C. Harris, James Lane Allen, W. D. Howells, F. Hopkinson Smith, Samuel L. Clemens, Louisa M. Alcott, Eugene Field, James Whitcomb Riley, Frances H. Burnett, James A. M. Whistler, George Inness, Augustus Saint-Gaudens, Frederick L. Olmstead, Theodore Thomas, Stephen C. Foster, William Jennings Bryan.
c. Locate on an outline map, without aid of any sort, all states and territories in 1900, the Great Plains, the Rocky Mountains, the Middle West, the Far West, the wheat belt, the corn belt, the cotton area, the industrial area, the Great Lakes, and the following rivers: Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Columbia, Colorado, Rio Grande, Arkansas, Tennessee, Cumberland.

4. Conduct a "round table" on historical books you have read while you were studying this division. The general subject of the division has been the expansion of the country. As the theme of your discussion you might use "The Books that have most expanded my own Ideas of my Country."

Division Six

The United States in the Family of Nations

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Foreword

Although the other nations of the earth could never be entirely forgotten, and although at all times they had a great deal of influence on the United States, many Americans thought little of outside peoples from the time when they became independent. Their country was so huge, their problems were so many, and they had in their own minds so much to achieve that they practically forgot that there was a world outside of the United States. They were sure that no other country could be so good as their own; they were sorry for people not so fortunate as to be Americans. During this time there were always some Americans who kept closely in touch with the culture of the Old World, but they were in the minority. The great mass of the American people knew nearly as little of foreign peoples as those foreigners knew of America. They were all alike "provincial"; that is, they were like the people of European provinces who know little of what happens in the capitals.

But in the last quarter of the nineteenth century there were forces at work that brought the nations of the earth much closer together. The little-known parts of the world were being explored, and there was a scramble among the nations to see who would control these new and often rich lands. More people could read than in former eras, and as they read they became interested in far-off countries. Machinery made leisure, and people with leisure are often curious about distant happenings. These and other conditions made life overflow its old national boundaries and become international. The American share in this change is the subject of this division.

The Nation's Capitol

This picture was made on a wet night during the Disarmament Conference of 1921. The dome of the Capitol is in the distance; in the foreground are the steps of the Library of Congress, which contains the shrine wherein rest the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. During the conference a net of brilliant searchlights thrown through colored prisms played over the city by night, and under this web of color Washington, always beautiful, became more beautiful than ever

Two Ten-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

Here are ten books dealing more in detail with many of the topics to be discussed in Division Six. Do you know of others that are helpful? If so, tell your teacher and classmates about them.

1. *The Story of the Great War*, by W. S. Braithwaite. Frederick A. Stokes Company.

A much-read book describing all phases of the World War.

2. *Philippine History Stories*, by Leandro H. Fernández. World Book Company.

Boys and girls who read this book will understand why the Filipinos are proud of their past and why they want to be independent.

3. *The British Empire*, by Frank Fox. Adam and Charles Black.

An interesting book, with clear maps and exquisitely tinted pictures, which will show why the boys and girls of the British possessions are so proud of their empire.

4. *Flags*, by Grace Humphrey. The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

This book gives the new flags as well as the old ones. It would serve as a guide for a project of making a set of flags for schoolroom decoration.

5. *Panama and its "Bridge of Water,"* by Stella Humphrey Nida. Rand McNally & Company.

A good account of Panama before and after the coming of the Americans.

6. *Cities and their Stories*, by Eileen Power and Rhoda Power. Houghton Mifflin Company.

A clear and charming account of twelve old cities with whose people the United States has sometimes to deal. It shows why many people see things differently from Americans.

7. *The Wonder of War at Sea*, by Francis Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

A book that aims to show what naval warfare has become. Naval actions in the World War are interestingly set forth.

8. *Central America and the Spanish Main*, by Agnes Rothery. Houghton Mifflin Company.

A vivid account of the places where once the Spanish treasure ships tried to dodge the pirates, and where now the United States has many interests.

9. *Scouting on the Border,* by Everett T. Tomlinson. D. Appleton and Company.

A story of army life in 1916, when General Pershing on the Mexican border was trying to capture raiders.

10. *The History of Latin America,* by Hutton Webster. D. C. Heath & Co.

This little book sets forth clearly the main facts in the history of all the Latin-American lands. Easy to read and interesting.

II. A Story-Book Library

1. *The Forest of Swords,* by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

A story of Paris and the Marne during the World War.

2. *The Hosts of the Air,* by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

A World War story of brave deeds in battle planes.

3. *The Guns of Europe,* by Joseph A. Altsheler. D. Appleton and Company.

This is the first of the series of three. They are much alike.

4. *Ben, the Battle-Horse,* by W. A. Dyer. Henry Holt and Company.

A story of the World War. One of the books most in demand in juvenile libraries. Do not miss it.

5. *Cease Firing!* by Winifred Hulbert. The Macmillan Company.

Thrilling short stories that help young people to understand international affairs. Based on facts connected with the work of the League of Nations.

6. *Short Stories of the New America,* edited by Mary A. Laselle. Henry Holt and Company.

Ten tales of the America in which we and our parents live.

7. *Our Little Alaskan Cousin,* by Mary F. Nixon-Roulet. The Page Company.

About the people and country of our Far Northern possessions.

8. *Basco, our Little Panama Cousin,* by H. Lee M. Pike. The Page Company.

Another story of child life, this time in the Canal Zone.

9. *On Pacific Frontiers,* by Carl Rydell. World Book Company.

The adventures of a seafaring man who had his eyes open wherever he went. Full of the tang of salt water and the color of far places.

10. *Our Little Philippine Cousin,* by Mary H. Wade. The Page Company.

A story which gives an excellent account of everyday life in the Philippines about 1902.

Division Six

The United States in the Family of Nations

UNIT I. HOW THE MONROE DOCTRINE CHANGED AND DEVELOPED

For many years the Monroe Doctrine was to most Americans the central idea in their thoughts about the relations of their country to other countries, if they had any such thoughts. Some Americans had a very hazy idea of what the Monroe Doctrine was. In fact, most foreign relations received little attention from most people. Until about 1900 only a few officers, like the Secretary of State, knew what was going on. Hence the Monroe Doctrine meant one thing to one generation, and another thing to the next. When it was first pronounced by President Monroe its meaning was simple and clear: European colonization in America was at an end, and Europe was asked to keep out of American affairs, while the United States promised to avoid mixing with those of Europe. But as time passed, the meaning or the theory of the Monroe Doctrine changed. This unit tells how some of this change came about.

1. The United States — Champion or Partner?

The first important test of the Monroe Doctrine came while the United States was using all its forces in the Civil War. Emperor Napoleon III of France sent some ships and soldiers to Mexico to collect debts that were said to be due his subjects. The soldiers captured Mexico City and made the Austrian archduke Maximilian the "Emperor of Mexico." Mexico was still a badly governed and weak country in the sixties; and although the Indian leader Juarez did his best to drive out the invaders, he with his men were no match for the trained French troops. Maximilian wanted to be a good ruler and did his best, but the Mexicans would not help him in any way. They did not want a foreign ruler of any kind, good or bad.

This foreign rule in Mexico began in 1862. Secretary of State Seward wrote to Napoleon that his action was contrary to the Monroe Doctrine. Since the United States was using every soldier it had in the Civil War, he could do no more. But when the war was over, Seward wrote to Napoleon again, very firmly. Troops were now free, and an army under General Philip Sheridan was sent to the Mexican border. Napoleon III took the hint, and the French army was called back to France.

The Fall of Maximilian. Maximilian might have gone back with them, but he considered it his duty to stay. Juarez was now strong enough to defeat the few friends who were faithful to Maximilian, and in 1867 the hapless man was seized and shot. The Mexicans again established a republic. The brief years of the French empire in Mexico and its sad ending showed one thing clearly: the United States could and would enforce the rule that no new European power could be established in the New World. To ambitious powers in the Old World the Monroe Doctrine said

"Hands off!" The United States seemed almost like the champion of all the Latin-American nations.

The Pan-American Idea again. In 1826 John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay had worked hard to put a different idea of the Monroe Doctrine into practice (see page 222); but the United States was not interested in other people then, and their idea had little support. Adams and Clay thought that all the American nations should join in a sort of confederacy, which could do whatever was best for its members. Thus, instead of being a champion of the smaller and weaker nations, the United States would be one member of a strong combination of them all. This would make the weaker countries happier, since it would not remind them that they were weak and must have friends. It seemed to Clay and Adams a courteous and democratic way of treating our Latin-American neighbors.

James G. Blaine and the Pan-American Conference. In 1881 the idea of a Pan-American conference was revived by James G. Blaine, President Garfield's able Secretary of State. He invited the Latin-American nations to be the guests of the United States. This conference never met, for neither in the United States nor in Latin America were people much interested in it. But Blaine continued to urge such a meeting, even after he ceased to be Secretary of State. When Harrison was elected president in 1888 Blaine was again made Secretary of State. Again he urged a Pan-American conference, and by that time many other people began to see that such a meeting would do great good. Congress directed the President to invite the Latin-American nations to send representatives to Washington. The meeting was held in 1889, and it resulted in the formation of the Pan-American Union. This union has a meeting-place in Washington and tries to prevent trouble and deal with trouble among the Latin-American countries and the United States.

The Home of the Pan-American Union in Washington

The Union was very weak at first, but it grew stronger as the years passed. The Pan-American idea too grew stronger. The Latin-American nations like it better than the championship idea. They say that the Monroe Doctrine was a good thing when they were young and weak, but that they are grown-up nations now and able to speak and act for themselves. They are willing to act *with* the United States, but not *under orders from* the United States. The stronger nations are especially sensitive about being championed by their northern neighbor. The three strongest of all — Argentina, Brazil, and Chile (known as the ABC powers) — are very anxious that Pan-Americanism shall succeed the championship idea of the Monroe Doctrine as a rule for American countries.

Project and Review

1. On page 452 is a statement as to the feeling of Napoleon III toward the two sides in the Civil War. Do you see any relation between his invasion of Mexico and his sympathy with the Confederacy?

2. Make a floor talk on the subject "Three Attempts to Hold a Pan-American Conference."

3. List the chief nations south of the United States, and show how the Pan-American Union may be used to benefit both them and the United States.

4. Locate on the wall map the ABC powers. Can you think of four reasons why these nations are so powerful in South America?

5. Why are not the three Guianas and Canada included in the Pan-American Union?

2. Arbitration and the Monroe Doctrine

The Geneva Award. While people were thinking what the Monroe Doctrine and Pan-Americanism really meant, another idea about the relations of nations to each other came to public attention. In 1872 Great Britain and the United States settled by arbitration the question of the damage done by the *Alabama* (see page 317n.).[1] That is, representatives from each of five nations (Italy, Switzerland, Brazil, Great Britain, and the United States) met in Geneva, Switzerland; they examined the claims made by the United States for damage done to ships and people by the *Alabama* and other vessels built in England for the Confederacy. They finally decided that Great Britain should pay the United States $15,500,000, and this was done. Thus a matter that might have caused a war was settled peaceably.

This method of settling difficulties appeared sensible and proper to most people. It seemed to them far better than an attempt to settle questions by a war, which usually meant that the stronger power got what it wanted, whether it was right or not. We shall see that the arbitration idea grew in importance at a later time.

[1] England, Wales, and Scotland form one government known as that of Great Britain. Ireland

The Venezuela Affair. Venezuela's neighbor on the east is the colony of British Guiana. No one knew just where the boundary line between the two lay, since it was in a very wild and unexplored country. Venezuela and England both claimed a strip of land there, and there had been a dispute over it since about 1840. In 1893 there was danger of war, for gold had been discovered in the disputed strip. President Cleveland, who had a strong sense of justice, thought that a powerful country like England could bully a weak country like Venezuela and take disputed land whether it belonged to her or not. This, he said, would be contrary to the Monroe Doctrine. Venezuela was ready to have somebody else settle the dispute, but England was not; thereupon Cleveland said that the United States would decide where the boundary was, and prevent England from going beyond it. This might mean war. Yet neither Great Britain nor the United States really wished to fight. After a little discussion England gave way and agreed to have the matter decided by arbitration. This was done, and in 1899 the arbitrators gave their decision. Most of the land was found to belong by right to British Guiana, and Venezuela was given the entire mouth of the Orinoco River.

Review

1. Locate the places mentioned in this topic and tell why each is important in the story.

2. Explain clearly the difference between the championship theory and the Pan-American theory of what the Monroe Doctrine should mean.

3. Tell the story of the Venezuela boundary trouble and its adjustment.

4. Review the events that led to the Geneva award of 1872.

UNIT II. THE EXPANSION OF THE NATION BEYOND THE STATES

When the United States had spread from ocean to ocean and reached from Canada on the north to Mexico and the Gulf on the south, some people thought that it was time to stop. But the United States did not stop. It expanded into still further territory, growing larger and larger and gaining all sorts of new people and interests. This expansion changed somewhat the character of the nation and what other nations thought of our country. Therefore the story is very important.

William H. Seward

1. Alaska, the Beginning of Empire

In 1867, when William H. Seward was Secretary of State, he bought Alaska for the United States. At that time nobody knew why, and most people thought it a useless and foolish purchase. They called it "Seward's Folly," and asked why the United States should pay Russia $7,200,000 for a stretch of ice and snow?

It was many years before people realized what a valuable territory Seward had gained for his country. Alaska has rich stores of timber, coal, oil, gold, and even good farming land, and in the waters that wash her shores there are fish and seals without number.

The Seal-Fisheries Dispute. The Aleutian Islands (see map on page 476) stretch out in a long curved line toward

Asia. North of the islands is the Bering Sea, and in Bering Sea great herds of seals lived in the summer while they reared their young. The sealskin was so valuable that every summer during the seventies and eighties seal-fishing vessels went in fleets to that sea to catch seals. They caught so many that there was danger that all the seals would be killed, and that these valuable animals would become quite extinct. The United States government therefore began, in 1886, to send revenue cutters to the Aleutian Islands.[1] These cutters captured several sealing vessels owned by British subjects.

Who Owns Bering Sea? Now all countries consider that the ocean as far as three miles out from shore is a part of their territory, and control it as if it were dry land. But outside the "three-mile limit" the ocean is called the high seas, and this belongs to no nation. The seal-hunters claimed that they had kept outside the three-mile limit, and that because of this the United States ships could not stop them or do anything to protect the seals. Many people in the United States thought that since Alaska and the Aleutian Islands so nearly surround Bering Sea, it should be considered a sort of American lake, so that the government could protect all the seals living in it. The government, however, knew that all of Bering Sea which was farther than three miles from shore was high seas.

The United States now tried to persuade the European governments and also Japan, whose citizens were catching seals, to join together in an agreement to protect them. But these nations would not do it. The men who were making money from the sealskins were able to persuade their governments not to interfere with their business.

The United States, anxious to protect the seals, again took to capturing the seal-fishers, and their governments again

[1] Revenue cutters are swift and strong little ships used for police duty of all sorts at sea.

objected. The English and American governments wrote a great many letters about it, and finally the question was given to a board of seven arbitrators to decide. Two of the arbitrators were appointed by England, two by the United States, one each by France and Italy, and one by Sweden and Norway together. The board decided that the United States could not control Bering Sea outside the three-mile limit, and had no right to protect the seals on the high seas. The United States obeyed this decision, as it was bound in honor to do. But in 1911 all the countries whose citizens were in the sealing business agreed that each should look after its own seal-catchers and not allow them to kill too many seals. Since this agreement went into effect, the seal herds have gradually increased, so that the danger of extinction grows less year by year.

Project and Enrichment

1. Explain three-mile limit, the high seas, extinct animals, revenue cutter, arbitration, "Seward's Folly."

2. Read about Alaska in *Under the North Star*, by Katharine E. Gladfelter, or in *Our American Neighbors*, by I. O. Winslow. Then suppose yourself to be having a holiday in Alaska, and write a letter to the class telling of your experiences and observations. What, especially, is the United States doing for its wards in Alaska?

3. Why should a government make such great efforts to keep an animal like the seal from becoming extinct, especially an animal that is not necessary to the comfort of mankind?

2. The United States in the Pacific

We have seen how the possession of Alaska made the United States interested in what went on in the Pacific Ocean. Further back we remember how Americans traded with China and India and how Commodore Perry opened up Japan. Between Asia and North America there lie many

groups of small islands, and from time to time some of these islands, by what seemed like chance, came into the lives of American people.

The Paradise of the Pacific. Midway across the greatest of the oceans lie the beautiful Hawaiian Islands, famous for their mild climate and their fertile soil. Americans had been much interested in them since about 1820, when missionaries from the United States began to teach Christianity to the native tribes, to put their language into writing, and to show them how to make a better government than the one they had. Some of the children of these missionaries stayed in the islands and became planters of sugar or pineapples. In 1875, with their advice, the Hawaiian king made a bargain with the United States: Hawaiian fruit and sugar were to come into the United States without paying a duty, and in return for this the king promised that he would not rent or sell any of his territory to any power but the United States.[1]

A few years later, in 1887, the United States leased Pearl Harbor, near Honolulu, as a naval station. And about this time the teaching of the missionaries bore fruit in the adoption of a constitution. This constitution gave some self-government to the natives, who had not had any voice in the government before, and also allowed the white people in the islands to vote.

Things now went on very well until 1893, when Benjamin Harrison was president of the United States. The liberal king who had granted the constitution died in that year, and the new ruler was a queen, Liliuokalani.[2] She set aside

[1] This sort of bargain, in which one ruler or people *reciprocate* (that is, exchange) a favor received from another ruler or people, is called a reciprocity treaty. These favors usually have to do with tariff agreements.

[2] Americans found it difficult, as you may, to pronounce the queen's name. She was therefore rather disrespectfully called Queen Lil in the newspapers. The name is not hard to say if it is divided thus: Líliuo-kaláni.

The Executive Building of the United States Government in Honolulu

This was formerly the Royal Palace of the native dynasty

the constitution and began to rule as her ancestors had. At this the more liberal Hawaiians broke out in a revolution. The white men helped them, and the two forces set up a republic. The leaders of the republic wanted to be annexed to the United States, as Texas had been many years before. They made a treaty with the United States which made Hawaii a part of the greater nation; but before this treaty could be ratified by the Senate, Harrison's term came to an end and Cleveland was president.

President Cleveland feared that the Americans in Hawaii had not been fair to Queen Liliuokalani, and he sent a man to the islands to find out the truth. This investigator found that Americans had helped to bring about the revolution, and that many of the natives liked the queen's government and did not want to be citizens of the United States. Cleveland then refused to send the treaty to the Senate. The Americans and Hawaiians who wanted a republic were able, however, to keep the queen from ruling the islands until 1898.

In that year the United States was at war with Spain, and it became clear to everyone that if Hawaii were a part of the nation it would be an advantage both to the islands and to us. The leading Hawaiians still wanted to be annexed; and Cleveland had now been succeeded by McKinley, who liked the idea of a larger and larger nation. On July 7, 1898, therefore, Congress voted to receive the islands, and they became an American colony.

Pago Pago in Tutuila. In the Samoan Islands there lived a gentle and friendly people, who were very generous to white visitors.[1] In 1872 one of their chiefs gave the fine harbor of Pago Pago, on his island of Tutuila, to the Americans to use as a naval station.[2] Very soon England and Germany also came, and were given similar privileges elsewhere on the islands. The three nations did not get on very well together. The Americans and Germans, especially, were rivals for the friendship of the natives and the control of the islands. There was an attempt to settle the matter by arbitration, but it did not succeed. All three nations kept warships near the Samoan Islands, to be ready in case of trouble.[3] Finally, after trying other plans without success, it was decided to divide the islands. The United States took Tutuila, Germany took other islands in the group, and Great Britain received land in another part of the Pacific Ocean.

Other Small Pacific Islands. With this beginning, and in one way and another, the United States gained little

[1] Robert Louis Stevenson, whose *Child's Garden of Verses* is read and loved the world over, was received by these people when he was too ill to live in colder climates. He was greatly loved by them.

[2] That is, as a place where supplies of all sorts, but especially coal, could be kept. The Pacific Ocean is so large that such stations are almost necessary to seafaring nations.

[3] Once, in 1889, a terrible hurricane destroyed all the warships but one. That one was the British ship *Calliope*, which sailed straight out of the harbor into the teeth of the storm, fought her way through it, and was saved.

Pago Pago

The deep fiord-like bay is perhaps the finest in the Pacific. Notice the high mountains and the naval station with its wireless towers

islands here and there in the Pacific.[1] Some are used as coaling stations, some as cable landings, and some are valuable for their beds of fertilizer. They are so widely scattered that the interests of the United States now extend to almost every part of the great Pacific Ocean.

Review

1. On the map of "The United States and its Possessions" (following page 476) locate each island or island group mentioned in this topic, and calculate its distance from the United States in round numbers.

2. Give a map talk in which you show the class the Pacific possessions of the United States so far studied, and tell how they were gained.

[1] The most important are Wake, Midway, Howland, Baker, Marcus, and Tahiti.

3. Write a short essay entitled "The History of Liberal Ideas in Hawaii."

4. Notice the position of the Samoan Islands. Of what advantage to the United States is a harbor in these islands?

Project and Enrichment

1. A wealth of interesting facts is to be found in *Hawaii and its People,* by A. S. Twombly; *The Story of Hawaii*[1] and *Through the Philippines and Hawaii,* by F. G. Carpenter; and *Alice's Visit to the Hawaiian Islands,* by M. H. Krout.

2. Can you add to the list at the foot of page 463 any islands not named there?

3. Plan a three months' cruise among the American islands in the Pacific. What do you expect to see in each? What is the most direct route that will include them all?

4. *Resolved,* That the Americans in Hawaii had no right to interfere with the government of the native Hawaiians.

3. The Spanish-American War

At the beginning of 1898 the island of Cuba belonged to Spain. The inhabitants were in revolt against the mother country, and this trouble greatly interested the United States. In the first place, it seemed as if the Cubans were trying to do the sort of thing that we had done in 1776. In the next place, Americans had millions of dollars' worth of property in Cuba which was being damaged. Moreover, it seemed that the Spaniards were treating the Cubans with terrible cruelty. Certain newspapers published frightful stories of Spanish inhumanity to the people of Cuba. This made many feel that it was a duty to stop such ill treatment of a neighboring people. The newspapers began urging President McKinley to ask Congress to declare war on Spain.

[1] Sent free by the Hawaiian Tourist Bureau, Monadnock Building, San Francisco.

Remember the *Maine*! The popular demand was suddenly increased after February 15, 1898. On that day the United States battleship *Maine* was at anchor in Havana Harbor in Cuba. Without the slightest warning there was a terrific explosion, the vessel was sunk, and two hundred and sixty sailors were killed. The American people were greatly excited. A committee was sent to find out what caused the explosion. When the committee reported that a mine had been put under the *Maine* and exploded, the people called for war. Nobody was in a mood to place much reliance on another report, made by a committee sent by the Spanish government. This committee said that powder on the ship had exploded and caused the accident. The American committee seems to have been right, from another examination made in 1911; but to this day nobody can be quite sure what happened.

President William McKinley

McKinley was born in Ohio in 1843 and died in 1901. He served in the Civil War, and in the House of Representatives at Washington, where he became known as a man learned in tariff questions

The American government wrote to the Spanish government at Madrid demanding that the cruelties in Cuba should stop and that certain promises of better management in the island should be made. After much delay Spain replied, consenting to each demand of the American government; but for some reason President McKinley did not make plain to Congress that these demands had been met. Hence Congress, thinking that Spain was stubborn and would not

A Street Scene in the Philippines

The natives of the Philippines are of mixed blood. They speak a Spanish dialect except in the remoter parts of the islands, where the native tongues are still used. Notice that clothing and houses are such as are demanded by a very warm climate

reform, declared that Cuba should be free and told the President to send an army down to drive the Spaniards out. This was on April 19, 1898.

Fighting Spain in the Philippines. About this time there was a fleet of American war vessels on the coast of China under command of Commodore George Dewey. There was a Spanish fleet at Manila Bay in the Philippine Islands, a Spanish colony not far from the coast of China, where Dewey's fleet lay. Orders were sent to Dewey to attack the Spaniards at once. He started as quickly as he could. It was early in the morning of May 1 when he found the Spanish fleet in the bay. There was a short fight, which showed that the Americans were better marksmen than the

Spaniards. The Spanish ships were sunk, one hundred and sixty-seven men were killed, and two hundred and fourteen were wounded. Not an American ship was hurt, not a man was killed, and only eight were slightly wounded. Supplies of men and ammunition were promptly sent to Dewey, and Spanish ownership of the Philippines came to an end.

Fighting Spain in Cuba. The Spaniards were attacked in Cuba both by land and by sea. Nearly seventeen thousand men under General Shafter were sent to the south side of the island near Santiago. They were to march inland to capture the city. They met the Spanish troops in skirmish after skirmish and in several pitched battles, always victoriously.

While the land forces were fighting their way toward Santiago, a fleet of American war vessels under Admiral Sampson and Admiral Schley was stationed about the entrance to the harbor. Inside the harbor was a fleet of six Spanish war vessels. The Spaniards now found themselves in this dangerous situation: the American army was pressing toward the city on the land side; the American fleet surrounded the harbor on the water side. What should be done?

On the morning of July 3, 1898, the Spanish war vessels dashed out of the entrance of Santiago harbor in an attempt to get away. The Americans were on the watch and rushed after the enemy at full speed. A running fire was kept up on both sides, but the Spaniards were ill prepared for the conflict. One by one their vessels were sunk or run ashore until the entire fleet was a ruin. Three hundred and twenty-three men were killed and one hundred and fifty-one were wounded. The Americans lost one killed and one wounded. Their ships were uninjured. The city of Santiago was thus left without protection on the water side, and surrendered to the American army.[1]

[1] A small force was sent to Porto Rico under General Miles. Before much was accomplished the war came to an end.

Results of the War. Defeated in the Philippines, defeated at Santiago, and with most of its navy lost, Spain at length gave in. A treaty was signed which contained the following agreements:

Spain was to give up Cuba, Porto Rico, and the island of Guam in the Ladrones.

Spain was to sell the Philippines to the United States for $20,000,000.

In spite of the great success of the navy the American losses in killed and wounded were considerable, and the numbers that died of disease were still greater. Many complaints were made: one was that the clothing given the soldiers was not fitted to a hot climate like that of Cuba; another was that bad food was given the troops, and this increased the danger of disease; a third was that the War Department was not prepared to protect its soldiers by proper and up-to-date medical care. All this bad management on the part of the War Department made the dangers from illness more feared than the dangers of battle.

Review

1. Give three reasons why the United States became interested in the struggle between Spain and Cuba in 1898.

2. Locate China and the Philippine Islands. How far did Dewey have to go to make the attack on Manila? Why should he make the attack at all?

3. Tell the story of the Spanish-American War in a floor talk of three or four minutes.

Project and Enrichment

1. "Remember the *Maine*!" was the battle cry during the spring and summer of 1898. Why? Read "The Blowing up of the *Maine* in Habana Harbor," in *Our Own Recent Times (1877–1911)*, pp. 125–131, Volume X of Great Epochs in American History.

2. Read one or more of the following:

a. "William McKinley," in *Our Presidents*, by James Morgan, pp. 236–250.
b. "Hobson and the *Merrimac*" and "Dewey at Manila Bay," in *America First*, by L. B. Evans, pp. 414–422.
c. "A Brief Account of the Spanish-American War" and "The Battle of Manila Bay," in *The Progress of a United People* (edited by C. L. Barstow), pp. 70–77, 93–106.
d. The Philippines, by S. McClintock, or *A Brief History of the Philippines*, by L. H. Fernández.

3. From your reading on the history of the Philippines before 1898, make a list of (1) the good things that Spain did for the Philippine people between 1565 and 1898; (2) the bad features of Spanish rule in the same period.

4. Lessons in Imperialism

At the end of the Spanish-American War the United States found itself in possession of a number of colonies. Many people objected. They felt that the United States was about to make the mistake that England had made before 1776 — the mistake of trying to govern distant people without their consent. They thought that Americans had no right to try to force their ideas and power on people who were not Americans. Those who believed that it was right to own and rule the distant possessions were called imperialists, because these possessions really made an empire; and their opponents were called anti-imperialists. The anti-imperialists thought that the United States should give up its colonies. The election of 1900 was fought out partly on the question of colonies. McKinley, renominated by the Republicans, favored having island possessions; Bryan, nominated by the Democrats, opposed the Republican policy. The Republicans won the election, and then arose the question How shall these islands be governed? It was finally decided that Hawaii might become a territory, like the other territories (Arizona and New Mexico) already in the Union. This was accomplished in 1900.

Cuba and Porto Rico. Cuba was in a wretched condition at the close of the Spanish-American War. The Spanish government had collapsed, and the Cubans were divided as to how they should set up a new government of their own. The island was filthy, and disease was common. The United States helped to clean up the island and to stamp out disease, especially the dreaded yellow fever. Schools were started, roads were repaired, and good order was secured.

The Platt Amendment. The anti-imperialists feared that the imperialists would persuade the government to break the promise made to the Cubans when the Spanish-American War broke out. At that time it had been said that the United States was not fighting a war to annex Cuba, but only to make it free from Spain. In 1900 General Leonard Wood, who was in command in Cuba, helped the Cubans to set up a republic and to make a constitution. This constitution was much like that of the United States. In the following year, while the Cubans were still busy making their constitution, the American Congress passed a famous law called the Platt Amendment.[1] This law said that American soldiers would stay in Cuba until certain promises had been made by the Cubans. These promises were (1) that Cuba would not allow any foreign power to rule over her or take away any of her territory; (2) that she would not go into debt beyond her power to pay; (3) that if at any time she could not keep law and order by herself the United States should come in and run the government until the danger was past; (4) that she would let the United States lease or buy naval stations from her.

The Cuban constitutional convention made these promises, and on May 20, 1902, the Cuban Republic was formally established. But although Cuba had a good constitution, her people were not trained to govern themselves. At election

[1] The Platt Amendment was an addition to the Army Appropriation Act of March 2, 1901.

times they had riots and disorders, and some of the officers were neither honest nor able. Things grew so bad that for over two years (from 1906 to 1909) the United States had to "intervene"[1] in Cuba. Twice since then, when Cuba has been unable to manage her own affairs peaceably, things have come almost to a formal intervention. In both cases good advice and the presence of American soldiers close by have made this unnecessary. Gradually the Cubans are making better election laws and learning how to govern themselves without American help.

Porto Rico. Porto Rico was kept by the United States. Schools were established, roads were repaired and improved, and disease was fought as it had been in Cuba. In 1900 a law was passed which set up for the island a government headed by a governor appointed by the president of the United States. At first the president also chose the upper house of the legislature, and the Porto Ricans elected the members of the lower house. But in 1917 the Porto Ricans were made citizens of the United States and were allowed, like an American state, to elect both houses of their legislature.

The Philippines. When the United States took control of the Philippines the natives were already in revolt. For more than two years the trouble continued before a degree of peace was restored. Then a government was set up, schools were started, roads were built, and smallpox was stamped out. The purpose of all these things has been to fit the people of the Philippines to govern themselves, but people do not agree as to when a people that is just learning modern ways of living is fit to govern itself. Some people who have lived in the Philippines a long time think that there should be good schools for at least a generation or two more before the people will know enough to use self-government for their own good.

[1] Look up the origin of this word in the dictionary and see whether it is a good word to describe what happened.

In 1916 Congress, after long debate, passed the Jones Act. This law made two important changes in the situation. It gave to the Philippines a government much like that of territories, so that they have a chance to practice self-government. It also stated that the United States intended to give the Philippines their independence when they had established and could run a safe, steady government. With this hope ahead, and with the means of learning how to govern themselves, the Filipinos are making progress. Three things stand in the way of their independence. They themselves have many bad habits to overcome which they learned while they were colonists. Then other governments in the Pacific, such as that of Australia, do not want the United States to give up the Philippines, and business men generally oppose the independence of the islands.

The United States in China. While the United States was trying to find out what was best to do with Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, a new danger appeared in China. There was in that country a society known as the "Boxers." Among other things, this society was opposed to having so many foreigners in China as there were at that time. Accordingly all foreigners were ordered out of Peking, the capital, in 1900. Many of them were killed at once. Soldiers were sent — Japanese, Russian, English, American, German, and French. Peace was restored, the Boxers were put down, and China was compelled to pay for the damage that had been done.[1] When the United States joined the other powers

[1] China had to pay the United States $24,000,000. Later this sum was found to be too great, and the United States relieved China of the payment of about half the amount. The Chinese government was so pleased with the action that it used some of the remaining amount to send Chinese students to American schools and colleges for their education. This helped to make the two nations better friends, for these students usually went home to put American ideas into practice in China and to remember courtesies that had been shown them in America.

A Grade School in the Village of Carolina, Porto Rico

The Porto Rican school system now gives education through the third grade to the children of the island. Native teachers are used as fast as they can be trained for the work

The High-School Building at San Juan, the Capital of Porto Rico

This high school represents the ideal of an education for Porto Ricans equal to that of the boys and girls in the United States. It is far from being realized yet, but a beginning has been made

in such a way as this, it began to be clear that *the United States was itself becoming a great world power.*

Death of McKinley. Just at the time when President McKinley was deep in the problems of American relations with the rest of the world he went to an exposition at Buffalo. Here he was shot and killed by a fanatic. His death occurred on September 14, 1901. The vice president, Theodore Roosevelt, succeeded him.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Read one or more of the following accounts:

a. "The Annexation of Hawaii" and "The Assassination of William McKinley," in *Our Own Recent Times (1877–1911)*, pp. 155–158, 159–162, Volume X of Great Epochs in American History.

b. "Sudden Expansion of the Colonial System," in *The Expansion of the American People*, by E. E. Sparks, chap. xxxvi.

c. "Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines," in *Steps in the Expansion of Our Territory*, by O. P. Austin, pp. 216–225.

2. *Resolved*, That the Philippines should be free and independent. Choose sides and debate the question.

3. List events before 1900 which indicated that the United States was becoming a world power.

4. About this time an Englishman, Rudyard Kipling, wrote a famous poem addressed to the American nation. It was entitled "The White Man's Burden." Find this poem at the library, read it, and explain what it means. Do you think Kipling is an imperialist or an anti-imperialist?

5. Explain how the relations between the United States and Hawaii and between the United States and Porto Rico have changed since 1898. Are these changed toward or away from the independence of the islands?

6. How was the government of Porto Rico before 1917 like that of certain English colonies before 1776?

7. Why is Alaska called on page 457 "The Beginning of Empire"?

UNIT III. THE UNITED STATES AMONG THE WORLD POWERS

The American nation had now so many interests outside the states and home territories that thoughtful people began to think a great deal about what it should do and be in the great world. Trade grew fast both at home and abroad. More and more people now realized that the prosperity of the United States was closely tied up with the prosperity of other parts of the world. President Roosevelt, who was at the head of the government from September, 1901, until March, 1909, was a man with an active mind and a genius for leadership. He had been in various public offices for a long time and had thought about public problems; he was not afraid of any amount of opposition; and he was so popular that a great many people would be enthusiastic about anything he did. Under his guidance the nation reached out to new duties and changed many things that less courageous men than Roosevelt had thought could never be changed.

1. The Panama Canal

Ever since Balboa explored the narrow strip of land that joins the two Americas, men had said that there should be a canal cut across from ocean to ocean. This canal would save ships the long and dangerous voyage around Cape Horn. Some skillful French engineers had begun such a canal in 1881, and in eight years had made considerable progress. Then the work had to be given up, for three reasons: the business management was poor, the machinery of those days was not powerful enough for so great a task, and the workers died of yellow fever.

We remember that far back in 1850 Great Britain and the United States had agreed to act together in case they

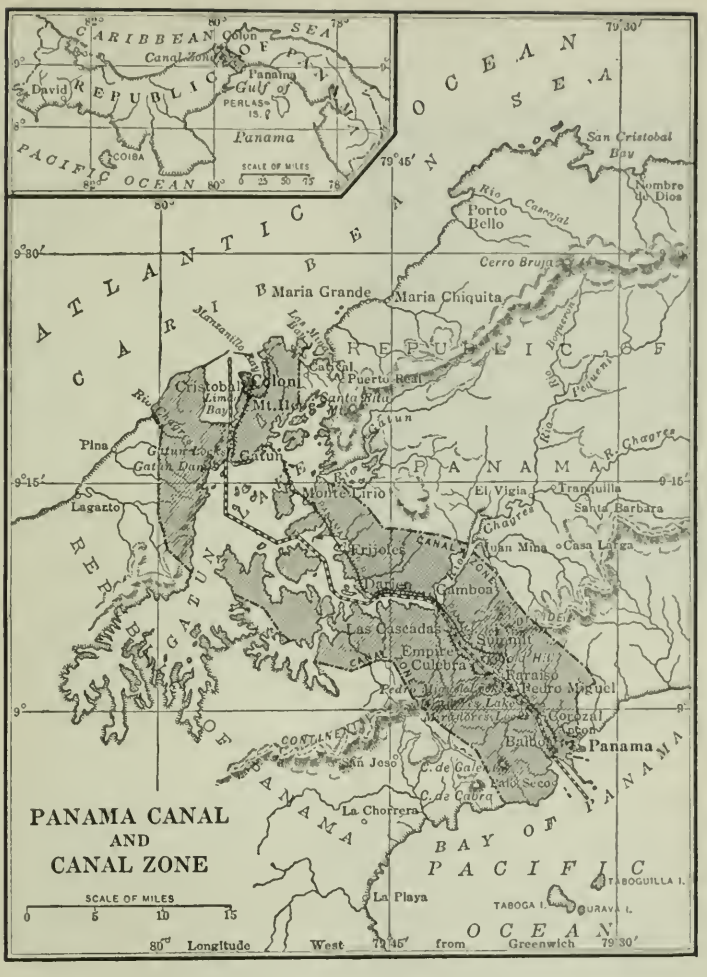
saw fit to dig a canal across the Isthmus. But by 1900 the United States was very anxious for a canal, whereas Great Britain was busy with other affairs and not directly interested. Therefore in 1901 Great Britain and the United States made a new treaty which gave the Americans the right to build a canal alone and to protect it by "military police."

Where shall the Canal be Built? The next question was Where shall the canal be cut through? The United States owned no land in Central America. Some people thought that the canal should go through Nicaragua, where there was a large lake that might be used. Others said that it should go through Panama, which was a province of the republic of Colombia. Roosevelt himself favored the Panama route. In 1902 Congress told the President to dig the canal through Panama if he could arrange with Colombia to do so, and if he could buy the rights which the French company still owned there. Roosevelt was able to buy the French rights without trouble; but when he made a purchase treaty with the Colombian representative at Washington, the Colombian senate refused to ratify it.

The people of Panama were very angry with their national government for not ratifying the treaty. They feared that now the United States would dig the canal through Nicaragua. Then Panama would be a "poor relation" to Nicaragua, which would grow rich and important when several great world trade routes passed through her territory. The French company feared that it might lose the money for its rights; so its members used their influence to stir up the people of Panama against their government. In November, 1903, the people of Panama revolted against their government and set up a republic of their own. American soldiers were on the spot and prevented the use of Colombian soldiers, who might have stopped the revolution. The American govern-

ARCTIC OCEAN
BARRY ISLAND
BANKS LAND
VICTORIA LAND
ARCTIC CIRCLE
ALASKA
Nome
UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS
DOMINION
VANCOUVER I.
Vancouver
Seattle
San Francisco to Nome 2706 miles
4200 miles
Vladivostok
CHINESE REPUBLIC
Tientsin
Weihaiwei
Yokohama
San Francisco
UNITED S
Shanghai
JAPAN
3379 miles
PACIFIC OCEAN
MIDWAY I.
2339 miles
3098 miles
MARCUS I.
INDIA
FORMOSA
TROPIC OF CANCER
Calcutta
Hongkong
LADRONE IS.
WAKE I.
HAWAIIAN IS.
Manila
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
MARSHALL IS.
Guam
Int. Date Line
For Commerce
3660 miles
3271 miles
5140 miles
CENTRAL AME
NICOBAR IS.
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS
BORNEO
PELEW IS
CAROLINE IS.
HOWLAND I.
BAKER I.
FANNING I.
EQUATOR
Singapore
SUMATRA
BISMARCK ARCH.
GILBERT I.
ELLICE IS.
PHOENIX IS.
MARQUESAS IS.
JAVA
NEW GUINEA
SOLOMON IS.
UNION GROUP
SAMOAN IS.
SOCIETY IS.
6488 miles
Colombo to Perth 3720 miles
SANTA CRUZ IS.
NEW HEBRIDES
FIJI IS.
TUTUILA
TAHITI
Panama
TONGA IS.
NEW CALEDONIA
2216 miles
TROPIC OF CAPRICOR
INDIAN OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
Perth
Brisbane
Sydney
NORFOLK I.
KERMADEC IS.
Wellington
1281 miles
Adelaide
Cape Town to Melbourne 6077 miles
Auckland
NEW ZEALAND
Melbourne
Wellington
CHATHAM IS.
Wellington to Rio de Janeiro 6883 miles
AUCKLAND IS.
Monday
Sunday
ANTARCTIC OCEAN
100° Longitude East 160°
180°
160° Longitude West 100°

80° 60° 40° 20° 0° 20° 40° 60° 80°
GRANT LAND
GREENLAND
ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC CIRCLE
BARFIN LAND
CANADA
SHETLAND IS.
Edinburgh
BRITISH ISLES
Dublin
London
Liverpool
Liverpool
CHANNEL IS.
Paris
FRANCE
NEW-FOUNDLAND
St. Johns
2625 miles
Quebec
Montreal
New York
Washington
Halifax
3025 miles
Southampton
Gibraltar
SPAIN
1920 miles
GREECE
ALGERIA
MALTA
CYPRUS
MOROCCO
LIBYA
Suez Canal
Port Said
EGYPT
BERMUDA IS.
BAHAMA IS.
WEST INDIES
MARTINIQUE
JAMAICA
BARBADOS
TRINIDAD
BRITISH GUIANA
FRENCH GUIANA
Panama Canal
Colon
4556 miles
Plymouth
3600 miles
Rio de Janeiro
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
GAMBIA
SIERRA LEONE
NIGERIA
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
Aden
1650 miles
ARABIA
SOCOTRA IS.
2093 miles
INDIA
Bombay
BRITISH SOMALILAND
MALDIVE IS.
CEYLON
EAST AFRICA
ZANZIBAR
SEYCHELLES IS.
AMIRANTE IS.
2340 miles
Belem
BRAZIL
ASCENSION I.
ST. HELENA I.
4717 miles
Southampton
Cape Town
5047 miles
INDIAN OCEAN
MADAGASCAR
MAURITIUS I.
RÉUNION
SOUTH WEST AFRICA
TRANSVAAL
NATAL
1560 miles
Durban
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
Port Elizabeth
Cape Town
3715 miles
Cape Town to Melbourne 6077 miles
PARAGUAY
Rio de Janeiro
URUGUAY
Iparaiso
ARGENTINA
Montevideo
Valparaiso
2300 miles
Montevideo
60 FALKLAND IS.
SOUTH GEORGIA
SOUTH SHETLANDS
GRAHAM LAND
THE UNITED STATES
AND ITS POSSESSIONS
Scale of miles along the equator
0 1000 2000 3000 4000 6000
United States and Possessions
British Empire
France and Possessions
Japan and Possessions
Distances are in nautical miles
80° 60° 40° 20° 0° 20° 40° 60° 80°
Greenwich Longitude East
40°
60°



The Canal Zone and the Panama Canal

The Culebra Cut is near the Pacific end of the Canal. Notice that the Atlantic end of the Canal is farther west than the Pacific end. There are locks, of which the three most important (the Gatun, Miguel, and Miraflores locks) are shown here

ment promptly recognized the little republic.[1] About a fortnight later Panama made a treaty giving the United States the right to dig a canal through Panama's territory. The canal was to pass through a strip of land ten miles wide, since called the Canal Zone. For this the United States was to pay $10,000,000 at once and a yearly rental of $250,000.

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General William C. Gorgas

The man who, by using the scientific knowledge gained at such cost in Cuba, made the Canal possible by making the Canal Zone healthful

Realizing an Old, Old Dream. The government decided not to allow a private company to build the canal, but to have it done by the War Department. A commission was appointed to study the many problems that must be solved. Until 1907 the commission was busy deciding whether to make a water-level canal or a lock canal, and also making Panama healthful enough for men to work there in safety. General William C. Gorgas was made head of the Sanitary Department. Under his direction Panama was made clean and orderly, and the mosquitoes that caused the yellow fever were banished.

[1] Colombia and other South American countries felt that the United States had practically stolen the Canal Zone. Many Americans were conscience-stricken because our soldiers had helped Panama to become independent of Colombia. There was a long and bitter dispute about it. In 1914, when Woodrow Wilson was president, a treaty was made with Colombia by which a sum of $25,000,000 was to be paid to her as a payment for the strip and for the loss of Panama. This treaty was ratified in 1922.

In 1907, under the direction of Colonel G. W. Goethals, the workmen began to "make the dirt fly." For seven years the work went on, for this was the greatest feat in engineering that men had yet attempted. The little strip was mountainous and steep, and many landslides made the work dangerous and uncertain. Despite all the difficulties, in August of 1914 the canal was so nearly complete that it was opened for use.[1] At once it became a popular waterway because of its great saving of time and expense. The cities of the west coast of South America began to trade with New Orleans and New York. Goods that had been carried by train from Oregon or British Columbia to the East now went by ship through the canal. Much trade that had formerly been carried through the Mississippi Valley now went around by sea. Ships that once had sailed from Australia or New Zealand to England around Africa or South America now went through the canal. In short, many of the world's trade routes were remade. Places that had once been important now lost their importance; others found themselves newly risen to power and prosperity.

Review and Project

1. Under the dates 1850, 1902, 1903, 1907, and 1914, outline clearly five steps in the history of the Panama Canal.

2. Gain a clear idea of the work of Gorgas and Goethals by reading about them in *The Book of Popular Science*, Vol. VII, pp. 2415–2419; or about Gorgas in *Trails of Progress*, by S. P. Core, and about Goethals in A. E. S. Beard's *Our Foreign-Born Citizens*. Then show how the work of one of them depended on the work of the other.

3. A lock type of canal was selected instead of a water-level type. Draw diagrams on the board to show how each type works. Can you see why the lock type was chosen?

[1] In 1915 a great exposition was held in San Francisco to celebrate the opening of the canal.

4. In 1925 some of the Western railroads were having a hard time. Their managers said that their troubles were caused by the Panama Canal. Explain how this could be.

5. In 1914, after a long and hard fight, Congress decided that American coasting vessels must pay the same tolls, or fees, for using the Canal that foreign ships pay. Is this a fair law? Is it good foreign policy? Why?

6. Borrow a sand-table from the primary room and make a model of the Canal Zone.

7. To whom does this stanza apply? Why?

A man went down to Panama,
  Where many a man had died,
To slit the sliding mountains
  And lift the eternal tide.
A man stood up in Panama
  And the mountains stood aside.

PERCY MACKAYE

2. The United States and Latin America

In 1902, through events in Venezuela, the Monroe Doctrine gained a new and deeper meaning. Venezuela, like other countries in Latin America, sometimes had bad governments which ran up great debts that could not be paid. When Germany, Great Britain, and Italy found that they could not collect debts due to their citizens, they sent warships to blockade the Venezuelan ports as a way of forcing Venezuela to pay. Germany seemed to be the leader, and therefore Roosevelt dealt with Germany rather than with England.

Uncle Sam's Police Power. President Roosevelt feared that if once the Germans gained a footing in Venezuela they would stay on and some day take part of Venezuela's territory from her. He asked Venezuela and Germany to arbitrate their difficulty. Venezuela was willing to do so, but

Germany refused. Roosevelt now acted quickly and decidedly. He sent Admiral Dewey to the West Indies and told him to have his fleet "in fighting trim" and ready to sail at an hour's notice. He then again asked Germany to arbitrate, and this time Germany yielded. The matter was settled peaceably some time later.

This incident brought a question to the minds of people, both in the United States and in other countries: Is the United States responsible for all the nations of the New World? Is every American nation that finds itself in trouble to be treated as if it were a child that cannot take care of itself? In other words, is the United States to be a sort of policeman among the nations whenever any question of Latin America comes up? What President Roosevelt thought about it can be seen from his own words, which he wrote to Congress in 1904: "The adherence of the United States to the Monroe Doctrine may force [it] to the exercise of an international police power." But even at that time there were many who disagreed with him, and insisted that the Pan-American way was the better and fairer.

Latin-American Development. In the meantime, as the United States came into closer relations with the South American nations, it found them changing in character. There were fewer revolutions. There was a tendency to be more careful about making debts and to be more honest about paying them. As trade grew, business men became more important in the governments. Business men understood that debts must be paid if a nation is to have credit. They also knew more about good management, and so now fewer mistakes were made. The Latin-American nations seemed to be growing up. There was more and more trade between them and the United States, and the business men of North America joined with those of South America in making relations more cordial.

The Palace of Chapultepec, Mexico City

The Mexican Question. But in the case of Mexico it was very difficult to keep peaceable relations. In the first place, Mexico found it very hard to forget the Mexican War. They looked at the Southwest of the United States, and thought that all that rich country rightly belonged to Mexico. Sometimes Americans went into Mexico and opened mines or planted coffee plantations or bought sisal.[1] These men did not understand Mexico. They did not understand that in Mexico land is still held much as it was in medieval Europe, and that the poorer Mexicans did not want to change. Many of them could not understand why a Mexican peasant did not want to work steadily, even at good wages, as American workmen do. They wanted to introduce all sorts of American ways into a country which hated the very thought of American ways.

There were exceptions, of course, to this feeling. From 1877 to 1880 and from 1884 to 1911 General Porfirio Diaz was president of Mexico. He wanted the country to be developed, but he knew that the Mexicans themselves were too

[1] Sisal is the fiber from which binder twine is made, and in a country which raises as much wheat as the United States it is an important material. It comes from Yucatan, one of the most mysterious and interesting parts of Mexico.

poor and ignorant to do this. Therefore he invited foreigners to come in. They might mine, farm, or trade as they saw fit, if only they would not interfere with his way of ruling the country. Many Americans then went into business in Mexico. The Mexican people hated the Americans, but the powerful Diaz protected them. Many of the Mexicans thought that Diaz was selling his country for American gold, and that the great wealth of Mexico was not being fairly divided among her people. Although a few gentlemen lived in luxury, most of the Mexicans were miserably poor. Besides, said they, Mexicans should have their own life; they should develop their own government and business, and not have a large part of their wealth carried off by foreign capitalists.

All this discontent resulted, in 1910, in a successful revolution led by Francisco Madero. Diaz had to flee to Europe, Madero became president and now many of the Americans whose business had been protected by Diaz had to flee for their lives. Others were killed, and their property was destroyed. American troops were sent to the Mexican border. Some Americans thought that this country should intervene to protect the lives and property of Americans. The Mexicans themselves could not decide on any one policy, but were divided into quarreling factions. President Madero was overthrown and shot, and was followed by President Huerta. It was commonly claimed that Huerta had had Madero shot, and there seemed to be evidence that this was true. Many European nations recognized Huerta as president of Mexico, and the American capitalists hoped that our nation would do the same. Huerta, they hoped, would bring back again the days of Diaz.

"Watchful Waiting." In the meantime, Roosevelt had ceased to be president in 1909. He had been followed by President William Taft, who had been governor-general of the Philippines and who believed in a foreign policy much

like Roosevelt's. But in 1913 Woodrow Wilson, a Democrat, became president. His party was mainly anti-imperialist in feeling, and Wilson himself was not in sympathy with American capital in Mexico. He thought that Huerta had gained his position in a questionable way and that he had not been honestly elected. He asked Huerta to have a new election in which he would not be a candidate and in which all the citizens might vote as they thought right. Huerta refused. Wilson then warned all Americans to leave Mexico. He would not make war, but he hoped that by leaving Mexico to herself he would help the better class of citizens to dislodge Huerta. They could then elect a president free from the suspicion of murder. He said that his policy was one of "watchful waiting," since the soldiers were still kept on the border; but he refused to use them unless absolutely necessary. His enemies attacked him bitterly for this policy.

Watchful Waiting Succeeds. In 1914 a war with Mexico was barely avoided. The Mexicans put a boat's crew of American marines into prison at Tampico, and this led to a demand for an apology and a salute to the American flag. The apology was made; but the salute was refused, and as a result soldiers were landed at Vera Cruz and occupied the city. At this point, when people wondered if another Mexican War were coming, the ABC powers offered to settle the trouble, and their offer was accepted. Huerta's power now came to an end, and he fled hastily from his enemies. Governor Carranza, their leader, became president, and in November, 1914, the American troops left Vera Cruz.

Villa and his Raids. President Carranza had a follower, Francisco Villa, who had been a robber chief. Villa now quarreled with Carranza and began to lead bands of ruffians in raids wherever there was anything to take. They even made raids across the border into the United States. Whenever they could they interfered with Carranza's attempt to

American Troops on the Mexican Border in 1916

The picture shows the desert country through which the border passes, the huts of the Indians who live in that region, and the long supply train drawn by army mules

keep good government. Both Mexicans and Americans suffered from the constant fighting and robbery, and Wilson was urged to send an army into Mexico and force the fighters to let their country live in peace. On the other hand, the Latin-American countries were watching to see if the "big bully," as they called the United States, would again make this an excuse to go into Mexico and take more territory from the weaker country.

Wilson did not give them cause to accuse the United States. Instead he called together the ABC powers, and Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala. This Pan-American Conference decided to recognize Carranza as the head of a true Mexican government. Villa, out of spite, crossed the border and in March, 1916, raided the town of Columbus, New

Mexico. Now the Americans were more excited than ever. For less than Villa had done, we had gone to war with Mexico in 1846. Wilson saw that he must make Villa respect the United States, and at the same time he must avoid war lest all the good done by the Pan-American Conference be lost. With Carranza's consent he sent General John J. Pershing into Mexico to punish and, if possible, capture Villa; but Pershing was to avoid any act that would be unfriendly toward the people or government of Mexico. This was a hard task, for the Mexicans were very sensitive. But Pershing succeeded. He did not capture Villa, but he scattered the robber bands and frightened the robber chief into quietness. He did his work so well that it was certain he would be called on for more service if the United States went to war. Besides, his army had much useful experience. While Pershing was in Mexico an army of militia guarded the border.

The Mexican Constitution of 1917. With this help from the United States, Carranza's party was able to secure the passage of a new constitution, which promised three things to the Mexican nation: (1) it had a plan for breaking up the great estates of the rich and dividing the land among the people; (2) it had a plan for making the lives of the poor more comfortable; (3) it said that all oil and minerals belonged to the Mexican people only, and that if Americans wanted to have oil wells or mines they must carry on their business under Mexican law.

Trouble did not cease, however, merely because Mexico had a better constitution. In 1920 Carranza was killed and General Obregon became president. The Americans who had invested millions of dollars in Mexico feared that they would lose all their property under the new law. They were protected, however, by an agreement made in 1923, which said that their property should not be taken from them. With this agreement they stopped asking for American in-

tervention in Mexico. In 1927 Dwight W. Morrow was made ambassador to Mexico, and under his wise and kindly guidance a better understanding grew up between the two neighbors. At present Mexico is spending much money on her schools, so that in time the evil of illiteracy will be ended. Many knotty problems still remain to be worked out, and relations are not ideal between Mexico and the United States. But it can now be seen that Wilson's watchful waiting, which saved the country from another Mexican war, and his use of the Pan-American plan in 1916 have made friendship between Latin America and the United States possible.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Make a list of events in Mexico since 1910 which have affected her relations with the United States.

2. The proportion of illiteracy in Mexico in 1925 was 62 per cent. What effect do you think this has on political life?

3. In 1928 Morrow's good work was reënforced by the friendly flights of Colonel Charles Lindbergh. A good account is to be found in J. E. Thomson's *Aviation Stories*, pp. 40–52.

4. Explain what is meant by the expression "civil war." Why should such a war in Mexico concern the United States?

5. Read James Morgan's treatment of Wilson in *Our Presidents*, pp. 271–286.

6. The difficult question of Mexican conditions is made clearer by H. La Tourette Foster's *A Gringo in Mañana Land* and E. D. Trowbridge's *Mexico Today and Tomorrow*. After reading one or more of these, write a letter to your teacher, dated at Mexico City, explaining why the Mexican workers could not understand American business methods.

7. Venezuela twice played an important part in developing the meaning of the Monroe Doctrine. Review each incident carefully (see pages 456 and 480) and then explain what happened each time and what resulted from each incident.

3. The United States in the Caribbean

As soon as the Panama Canal was finished, and even when it was first planned, the islands of the Caribbean Sea became important to Americans. They might be used as bases from which an enemy could attack the canal in time of war. In time of peace they were important as naval stations or for trade. Besides, these islands were now mainly free and trying to manage themselves, and sometimes they got into trouble with European powers. Who was to protect them, if not the United States? Above all, American capitalists had invested money there, and they demanded that their government protect them and their property. For all these reasons there grew up after 1902 a "Caribbean policy," as the United States grappled with first one and then another of the problems of the islands.

Financial Protectorates. In 1905 Santo Domingo (the Dominican Republic) asked for help with her money troubles. She had borrowed money that she could not repay, and every year she was spending more than twice her income. Roosevelt put over the customhouse an officer who gave the republic 45 per cent of the duty received, with which to run the government. The other 55 per cent was put into a fund for paying the debts. At once more revenue came in; for trade grew better, and no one dared to steal the duty money. The debts were paid off steadily, and European powers no longer talked of coming over to collect their debts.

But while money matters improved, political conditions were as bad as ever. At first there was no American interference in politics, but disorders became so bad in 1916 that Wilson had to send troops to Santo Domingo, and they stayed until 1924. Some of the Dominicans did not like this and complained bitterly of the American protectorate. Many Americans said that their country had no business to

THE CARIBBEAN REGION
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
CARIBBEAN SEA
GULF OF MEXICO
MEXICO
TEXAS
Austin
Houston
Galveston
Baton Rouge
LA.
MISS.
ALA.
Mobile
New Orleans
Mississippi R.
Montgomery
GA.
Savannah
Tallahassee
Jacksonville
FLA.
Tampa
Miami
Key West
Florida
Straits of
Monterrey
Brownsville
Rio Grande
San Luis Potosi
Tampico
Guanajuato
Tuxpán
Pachuca
Mexico
Chapultepec
Puebla
Vera Cruz
Progreso
GULF OF CAMPECHE
Yucatan Strait
C. San Antonio
C. Catoche
Pinar del Rio
Habana
C. of Good Hope
YUCATAN PENINSULA
COZUMEL I.
Merida
ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC
Belize
Gulf of Honduras
Pto. Barrios
SWAN IS.
JAMAICA (Br.)
Kingston
Port au Prince
Santo Domingo
Cape Haitien
Puerto Plata
Mona Passage
Ponce
STA. CRUZ I. (U.S.)
Guatemala
San Jose
San Salvador
Gulf of Fonseca
Pto. Cortes
HONDURAS
C. Gracias a Dios
Tegucigalpa
NICARAGUA
Corinto
Managua
Lake Nicaragua
Bluefields
CENTRAL AMERICA
COSTA RICA
San Jose
Limón
Panama Canal
Panama
Gulf of Panama
Colon
C. Gallinas
Barranquilla
Cartagena
Gulf of Darien
Caracas
VENEZUELA
Orinoco R.
Magdalena R.
Bogota
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
Quito
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
(British)
(Dutch)
(French)
GUIANA
SOUTH AMERICA
BRAZIL
Amazon R.
Equator
BAHAMA ISLANDS
GREAT BAHAMA
ABACO I.
ANDROS I.
NASSAU
ELEUTHERA I.
CAT I.
SAN SALVADOR OR WATLING I.
LONG I.
JACKLIN I.
Pass
Tropic of Cancer
Sta. Clara
Crooked I.
GREAT INAGUA I.
TURKS IS. (British)
Manzanillo
Santiago de Cuba
REP. OF DOMINICAN
HAITI
PUERTO RICO (U.S.)
San Juan
Virgin Passage
ST. THOMAS I. (U.S.)
VIRGIN IS.
ST. KITTS I. (Br.)
LEEWARD ISLANDS
BARBUDA I. (Br.)
ANTIGUA I. (Br.)
GUADELOUPE I. (Fr.)
DOMINICA I. (Br.)
MARTINIQUE I. (Fr.)
WINDWARD ISLANDS
ST. LUCIA I. (Br.)
ST. VINCENT I. (Br.)
BARBADOS I. (Br.)
GRENADA I. (Br.)
TOBAGO I. (Br.)
Port of Spain
TRINIDAD I. (Br.)
CURAÇAO I. (Dut.)
LESSER ANTILLES
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
United States and Possessions
Protectorate of the United States
Capitals of Countries
Capitals of Possessions
Longitude West from Greenwich
100° 90° 70° 60° 50°
30° 20° 10° 0°

control Dominican affairs, even if it did keep order. They thought that by such treatment the Dominicans would not learn to be self-governing, and that they were only learning to hate the "meddlesome" Americans.

Haiti, a Negro republic at the other end of the same island, had money troubles like Santo Domingo's. In 1915 there was a terrible massacre there, growing out of political hatred. American marines then took possession of the chief towns of Haiti, and a treaty was made which said that the Americans should manage the customhouse and train a native police force to keep order in the little republic. The Americans also showed the Haitians how to be more clean and healthy, they straightened out a badly mixed money system, and they removed some very dishonest officers. Again there were complaints of American rule, which, it seems, had bad features as well as good ones. It was claimed that the marines were cruel to the Haitian people, that prisoners were killed unlawfully, and that the natives were made to work on the roads like slaves. These complaints caused the American Senate to send a committee to Haiti to investigate conditions. The committee reported that the Americans were doing a good work, and that soldiers would be needed for a long time to keep order and to insure progress in Haiti. They are still there at this time (1930).

Nicaragua. In Central America the question of whether the six little nations shall act together in a Central American Union or be managed by the United States is not yet settled. Panama and Nicaragua prefer American management, because it brings them health, prosperity, and at least some peace. The other countries prefer to manage their own affairs, and to quarrel if they please, without interference from the outside. In 1900 the United States began to help these countries to settle their differences by arbitration. In 1907, at a Central American conference in Washington, there was

created a Central American Court of Justice. This court was to act as a permanent board of arbitration to settle differences in such a way as to avoid war. For ten years it did good service in smoothing out quarrels and making good feeling in Central America. But at last it ceased to work because of the following events:

Nicaragua had a stormy political life, with frequent revolutions and very bitter political feuds. Americans have many banana plantations, railroads, and wharves in this country, as in all the Central American lands. Most of the people do not want this American development, even if it does bring them prosperity: they prefer to live in their own way. A few people, however, do want the Americans. They want their country to be developed, and they know it can only be done with American money and experience. New York bankers have been willing to lend money to Nicaragua, but they said that they must first have promises of good management. These promises were made, but the government could not keep them without help. Since the American government wanted the combination of American money and Nicaraguan ambition to succeed, it sent marines into Nicaragua in 1912. The marines stayed until 1925, protecting the Americans and keeping the small conservative government in power. This made it possible for Nicaragua to make much progress, but there was great objection to the policy both in Nicaragua and in the United States.

During these years there was from time to time a revival of the old idea of making a canal through Nicaragua, in addition to the Panama Canal. In 1916 the United States and Nicaragua made a treaty which provided that if such a canal were ever built, it should be done by the United States. The treaty also granted several privileges to the Americans, among them the right to have a naval station in the Gulf of Fonseca. Costa Rica and El Salvador at once

objected to the treaty. They said it was contrary to several older treaties, and that Nicaragua had given away things that did not belong to her but to them.[1] Nicaragua said they were wrong; and she clearly thought it was better to keep the friendship of the United States than that of her neighbors. So the question of whether the treaty should stand was taken to the Central American Court of Justice. In 1921 this tribunal said that Costa Rica and El Salvador were right and that the treaty was not lawful.

Should the United States allow this court to decide whether its treaties should stand? Perhaps some presidents would have done so. But in 1921 the government decided that it would not be subject to such a court, although it had helped to create it in 1907. The treaty with Nicaragua was declared in force in 1922. After that no more cases were taken to the court, for without the support of the United States it had no authority.

This failure of the Central American Court of Justice seems to be a defeat for the Pan-American idea and a triumph for that of championship. But this defeat may not be permanent, for clearly the struggle is not over yet. After the marines were taken away from Nicaragua in 1925, there occurred election disorders so bad that they had to be brought back. Since that time there has been much fighting in Nicaragua. It is impossible to say how long the struggle will go on. The only thing that seems to be sure is that so long as the Latin-American countries cannot keep good order themselves they will continue to call on the United States for help, that some people will think this a good thing and others will say it is very bad, and that so long as Ameri-

[1] These things concerned the use of Costa Rica's San Juan River and Bay of Salinas and the parts of the Gulf of Fonseca which belong to Honduras and El Salvador. These can be seen on a larger map of Central America than can be put into this book.

can money is used to develop other lands the American government will try to protect the property thus acquired.

Imperialism and Pacifism. One of the arguments that anti-imperialists use is that the colonies and protectorates are very costly to the nation. For one thing it is necessary to have a larger army and navy because of them. Ships and soldiers must always be ready for putting down rebellions and riots in the troublesome little countries that Uncle Sam looks after. The people who hate war and hope to find a way to prevent it fear that the larger army and navy may some day bring on a new war. For this reason most of those who are active in the movement against war are anti-imperialists, and most militarists (those who want to have a large army and navy to be prepared for war) are also imperialists.

The imperialists reply to the anti-imperialists that although the large army and navy are costly they bring more wealth to America than they cost. They point out the great increase in trade that has come since 1898; they show how the fruit, sugar, fiber, tobacco, and minerals from our protectorates and colonies have made American life more comfortable and pleasant. Most important of all, they point out that the United States has sent to many of these places an army of school-teachers who have done far more good than the army of soldiers, but that the teachers could not work without the soldiers to protect them. They remind us that health and cleanliness have followed the American soldier into these far places, making the lives of the people better than they were before. And they say that when a country has been given good customs and wealth it is that country's duty to teach less fortunate people how to make their lives more useful and happy.

The Virgin Islands. Secretary Seward had tried in 1867 to buy the Danish West Indies, or Virgin Islands, and again

in 1902 a bargain was almost struck. In 1867 the American Senate would not ratify the treaty, and in 1902 the Danes refused to ratify. In 1916, however, Denmark decided that it was wiser to sell the islands than to keep them. They were sold to the Americans for $25,000,000. These islands consist of St. Thomas, which has a splendid harbor, St. John, and St. Croix, with about fifty tiny islands scattered about them. The people, who speak English, gave their consent before the islands were sold, and they now manage their own home government.

The position of the islands makes them valuable to the United States, since they form a sort of gateway to the Caribbean Sea. But another fact was considered when they were bought. Denmark wanted to sell them. The Monroe Doctrine says that no European power may come in and take land in the New World, but it does not say that a European power which owns territory may not sell it. If the United States did not buy the Virgin Islands, might not Germany or France or Great Britain buy them and thus gain new power in the New World? The United States must not be a "dog in the manger": if it does not want other powers to buy any land that is for sale, it must buy that land itself.

Review

1. Explain how the Monroe Doctrine kept European countries from sending armies to Central and South American countries.

2. Why did Roosevelt send troops to certain Central American countries to collect tariff duties?

3. Show how the policy of isolation became more and more difficult to maintain after 1900.

4. Explain why the regular army of the United States was kept very small between 1900 and 1914, whereas the navy was kept more nearly equal to European navies.

5. Make a list of the twenty most important places in the Caribbean world. Hold a class contest on these places, in spelling match fashion, to test your ability to find them instantly on the wall map.

6. Make a list of the events mentioned in this topic. After each, make a mark to show whether the championship idea or the Pan-American idea was used. Which idea has been used more? How do you explain this?

UNIT IV. THE UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR

In August, 1914, a great war broke out in Europe. It is known in history as the World War, because so many of the countries of the world were engaged in it before it came to a close. The United States got into it in April, 1917. It is with our own part in the war that this unit is most concerned.

1. How the United States came to Enter the War

Fundamental Causes of the War. In 1914 the various countries in Europe had large armies. They were all suspicious of one another. All were fearful of the outbreak of a war. Hence they had made alliances, or agreements, to help one another in case of conifict. Germany and Austria-Hungary, for example, were allies. France and Russia had an alliance; so also had Great Britain and Japan. Russia and Serbia were friendly. France and Great Britain understood that they would stand by each other in case of need.

Immediate Causes of the War. In August, 1914, the time of need suddenly came. Some members of a secret society in Serbia planned and carried out the murder of the young man who was to become emperor of Austria. The Austrians deeply resented this, and declared war on Serbia. Two days later Russia called out her army. Thereupon Germany (Austria's ally) declared war on Russia (Serbia's

friend), and soon afterwards on France, and then on Belgium. Great Britain and Japan stepped in on the side of France; a little later Turkey, and still later Bulgaria, went in on the side of Germany and Austria. In a short time the two sides were as follows:

On Serbia's Side	On Austria's Side
Serbia	Austria
Russia	Germany
France	Turkey
Belgium	Bulgaria (in 1915)
Great Britain	
Japan	
Italy (in 1915)	

In the size of the armies and the numbers of guns, battleships, and other means of war, this struggle has never been equaled in the history of the world.

American Complaints about England and Germany. Americans scarcely knew what to think about the war. Natives of all the countries on both sides of the quarrel lived in the United States. There were millions of Germans, especially in the Middle West, and other millions of English everywhere in the country. Interest was keen, but nobody could tell exactly to what extent each side was right or wrong.

Then complaints about England began to appear. England stopped American ships going to Germany, and even to Denmark and Holland. She seized cargoes of copper, flour, and other products which were thought to be bound for Germany. American mail was opened and read. All this looked very much like those acts of England that had helped to bring on the War of 1812.

The United States had its complaints about Germany also.

Before Belgium entered the war, Germany sent an army

into that country on the way to France. Belgium tried to drive the Germans out and was crushed in the attempt.

Men were sent over here by the German government to prevent our sending supplies to England. They set factories on fire where the goods were being made; they placed bombs in ships which were carrying goods across; they tried to get workmen in the factories to quit work.

Suddenly these things all became of little importance. Germany began to use the submarine to creep up on vessels carrying passengers and supplies and send them to the bottom of the sea. On May 7, 1915, for example, the *Lusitania*, an English vessel, was sunk off the coast of Ireland. Nearly twelve hundred men, women, and children were cast into the ocean and drowned. One hundred and fourteen of these were Americans. President Wilson kept his temper and tried to get Germany to apologize, to pay damages, and to agree to stop such outrages.[1]

Other people were not so sure. Many still disliked England

[1] Many other events in those days added to the excitement and to the feeling that Germany was being unfair to a neutral power. In August, 1915, the British ship *Arabic* was sunk and two American lives were lost. In March, 1916, the French passenger ship *Sussex* was sunk, with more loss of American life. Germany informed the American government that in certain large parts of the ocean she intended to ply her war trade of sinking vessels, and that if people wanted to be safe they must avoid this "barred zone." German spies were known to be in various places in the United States finding out things that might be useful to their government. Some of these spies were caught. None of these things, perhaps, did so much to arouse the American people as the Zimmermann note. This was a message sent from the German government to its minister in Mexico. It told the minister that if the United States should join England and her Allies in the war, he was to ask Mexico to make an alliance with Germany. Then, when Germany and Mexico were both triumphant, Germany would help Mexico to regain Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The Mexicans were also to be asked to invite Japan to leave her British alliance and join Mexico and Germany. The British spies who discovered this note gave it to the American government, and it was published on March 1, 1917. Its effect was to make thousands of Americans ready to fight Germany.

because of the Revolution, and did not wish to fight on her side. Others dreaded a war, with all its cost in money and human suffering.

In the midst of this difference of opinion came the presidential election of 1916. The Democrats renominated President Wilson, and the Republicans chose Charles E. Hughes of New York, a member of the Supreme Court. Wilson was reëlected.

The Year 1917. No sooner was Wilson reëlected than war seemed more probable than ever. Germany announced that she was going to use the submarine to sink ships going to England. This was too much for even so patient a man as President Wilson. He called Congress together and asked for a declaration of war. So patient had he been with Germany and so well had he explained the purposes of the war that Congress and most of the people of the country fully agreed with him. On April 6, 1917, the United States declared war on Germany. The vote in the Senate for war was 82 to 6; in the House it was 373 to 50.

Why the United States entered the War. The enthusiasm with which Americans threw themselves into the war was one of the most interesting things in all the history of the United States. The people believed that they were clearly right in what they were doing. They felt that they knew *why the United States was entering the war.*

Germany was already actually waging war against the United States by her use of the submarine. During February, 1917, alone, two American ships had been sunk, and others were staying in port for fear of being struck. In all, two hundred and twenty-six American citizens were drowned by submarine attacks.

Americans feared that if Germany were victorious she would attempt to make up for the cost of the war by an attack on the United States. Many believed that the Germans

would bombard our wealthy Atlantic seaboard cities and demand large sums of money.

3) Another of the reasons for entering the war which President Wilson mentioned in his message to Congress was the action of the German government in sending spies to America to set fire to factories and put bombs in ships which were carrying goods across the ocean.

Raising an Army and Navy. As we remember, the American army before the war was small; and of course it lacked the experience which the great European armies had gained since 1914.

The first thing was to find the men. The regular army and the militia were increased. Then conscription, or draft, laws were passed, by which all the men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were required to turn in their names. Then 2,810,296 men on the lists were drawn by lot, some sooner and some later, and formed nto what was called the national army.[1] Every man was examined as to physical and mental fitness. Some who did not have perfect bodies and therefore were not fit for fighting were used behind the lines for various services which helped the army, such as building airplanes and hospitals and barracks.

Meanwhile "cantonments" were being built to take care of the soldiers. These were practically small towns containing from one thousand to twelve hundred buildings, with places for about forty thousand men. There were sleeping-quarters, theaters, laundries, hospitals, drill grounds, streets, fire departments; in short, a whole city.[2]

Raising Money to pay the Bills. The "Liberty Loans" and new taxes provided the money for all these great under-

[1] These laws were known as the selective-draft acts.

[2] A government officer who studied the matter said that enough lumber was used for the cantonments to make a sidewalk extending four times round the earth at the equator.

takings. It was here that the wealth of the United States became important.

Taxes were put on everything that can be imagined: on goods sold at a soda-water counter, for example; on admission to all theaters, moving-picture shows, and ball games; on railroad tickets and Pullman-car seats; and on the profits of stores and shops and factories. Stamps were sold by the government, to be pasted on legal documents.

More unusual were the five great Liberty Loan campaigns. Five times the government borrowed money from the people of the country — not from the wealthy only, but from nearly everybody. The farmer on the back roads of New England, the city dweller, the Southern lumberman, the people of the plains and mountains and of the Pacific coast, all had a hand in these huge campaigns. The size of the loans may be judged by the following:

Number of the Loan	Amount of Loan	Number of People Lending
First Liberty Loan	$2,000,000,000	4,000,000
Second Liberty Loan	3,808,766,150	9,400,000
Third Liberty Loan	4,176,516,850	18,376,815
Fourth Liberty Loan	6,992,927,100	22,777,680
Victory Loan	4,498,312,650	11,803,895

The Liberty Loan bonds were different from other government bonds, in that they were issued in fifty-dollar units as well as in larger ones. This meant that anyone who could raise fifty dollars could help to win the war, and children and workmen who had never before bought any kind of bonds now bought government bonds. Those who could not raise fifty dollars could help by buying certificates at the post office. The American people saved as they had never saved before to help win the struggle against what they felt was autocracy.

Everybody's support was needed, for the cost of the war was greater than that of any other war in the world's history. Over a period of twenty-five months (from April 1, 1917, to April 30, 1919) the United States spent money at the rate of more than a million dollars an hour. In addition, it lent money to the other opponents of Germany at the rate of nearly half a million dollars an hour.[1]

A World-War Poster

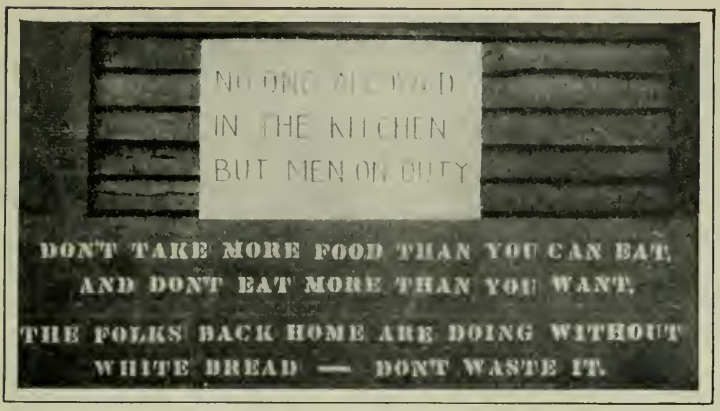
This poster was shown widely in America, and resulted in a definite change in eating habits for Americans during the war period. The energy-making foods were saved and sent to France

Other Kinds of War Work. President Wilson appointed Herbert C. Hoover to direct the country in saving food for the army and in raising bigger crops than had ever been raised before. Children had less sugar on their cereal in the morning, so that more might be sent to the soldiers. New gardens sprang up all over the country.

The women of the country were as busy as the men. Thousands served as nurses, or acted as clerks and stenographers in Washington and elsewhere. Millions made

[1] The following true story will illustrate how much interested all the people were in the success of the Liberty Loans:

A man was speaking before a crowd of people in a small town near the White Mountains of New Hampshire. He was urging the citizens of the town to lend the government every dollar that they could spare. In the middle of the audience was a group of woodcutters, perhaps fifteen or twenty of them, rough-appearing men who had been for months in the woods, without


IN THE KITCHEN
BUT MEN ON DUTY
DONT TAKE MORE FOOD THAN YOU CAN EAT,
AND DONT EAT MORE THAN YOU WANT.
THE FOLKS BACK HOME ARE DOING WITHOUT
WHITE BREAD — DONT WASTE IT.

The Other Side

This photograph of a sign on a kitchen ventilator in France shows the other side of the food-saving question. The directions to the men were stenciled near their eating-places, to remind them of sacrifices at home

sweaters and socks and bandages for the Red Cross.[1] The nursing service in the World War was well organized, and the medical and surgical service was the best that modern science could give. The government and the welfare societies worked together to do all they could for the soldiers. The Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, the Salva-

so much as visiting even the nearest village. They sat silent while the speaking was going on, showing no sign of interest in what was being said; in fact, the speaker was afraid that perhaps they might be noisy or boisterous and disturb the meeting, but no such thing happened.

Finally the speaking came to an end, and there was a short silence. Then the leader of the lumbermen stood up and said that they wanted to help the United States to win the war, and that they had brought their money with them to the meeting. Thereupon he pulled out of his pocket a roll of bills which was so big that it did not seem possible that any pocket could hold it! You will have to imagine the enthusiasm which was aroused by this action.

[1] The American Red Cross was a society founded by Miss Clara Barton in 1881. It took care of many of the sick and wounded during the war and relieved suffering in many parts of Europe (see page 427).

tion Army, and the Young Women's Christian Association all helped to bring religious services, wholesome recreation, and comfort to the soldiers in the camps and at the front.

The laboring men took as great a part in the war as the soldiers, the farmers, and the women. They built the cantonments and the ships, the automobiles and airplanes and submarines, and ran the trains on the railroads. One of the favorite pictures during the war was that of a workman pulling some money out of his pocket for a Liberty Loan. As he did so he remarked, "Sure, let's finish the job!"

The benefits of the schools were seen in the way in which everybody read about the war. Each day the government sent out a small circular of information. The newspapers were full of the war. More people knew about the purposes and events of the conflict, and more people had a real share in it, than had ever been the case in any war since time began. All this would have been impossible without the schools.

Review

1. What is the difference between "fundamental" causes of a war and "immediate" causes? What were the fundamental and immediate causes of the World War?

2. Account for the line-up of the nations at war in 1915. Why did Germany declare war on Belgium?

3. On two sides of a line drawn down the middle of a page, write the complaints that the United States had against England and against Germany. Does this list explain why the United States became one of the Allies?

4. Explain the meaning of regular army, militia, conscription, national army, welfare organization, cantonments, barred zone, Zimmermann note.

5. Give a short talk on the methods used for paying the huge bills of the war.

6. What was the part of the schools in the war?

Project and Enrichment

1. Probably the Red Cross relieved more suffering during the war than any other one agency. Read Clara A. Barton's *Story of the Red Cross* to discover how this great society came to be ready for so great a service.

2. Can you find other ways in which Wilson tried to avoid war in 1914–1917? See H. J. Ford's *Woodrow Wilson: the Man and his Work.*

3. In the Civil War men at first volunteered to fight, and later there was a draft law which made the less patriotic go into the war. In 1917 the draft law was passed at the beginning of the war. Which is the better plan? Why?

4. Did the entrance of the United States into the World War agree with the Monroe Doctrine? Why?

2. The Part of the United States in the War

The Situation in Europe in 1917. When the United States declared war against Germany, who were fighting on the two sides over there? On the side of Germany were Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria. Opposed to them were Great Britain, France, and Belgium on the west, Italy on the south, and Russia on the east; these were called the Allies. Many other nations in other parts of the world had also declared war on Germany, but those named here were most important.

In the year 1917 several things occurred which gave Germany great hopes of winning the war:

Russia, on the east, collapsed and gave up fighting.

Italy, on the south, was pushed back by the Austrians and Germans and almost beaten.

Germany's submarines had been so successful that British ships were being sunk in great numbers. Both Great Britain and France feared that they could not keep up the war much longer.

The Western Front in the World War

Germany's Great Drives. The collapse of Russia gave Germany all the more troops to use against Great Britain and France. Moreover, Germany saw that the United States would soon be throwing a huge army into the conflict. Why not, then, take the free troops from the Russian border and hurl them against England and France before the United States got over? It would take the Americans a year to raise their army, drill it, send it over, and begin to fight. What might not be done in that year?

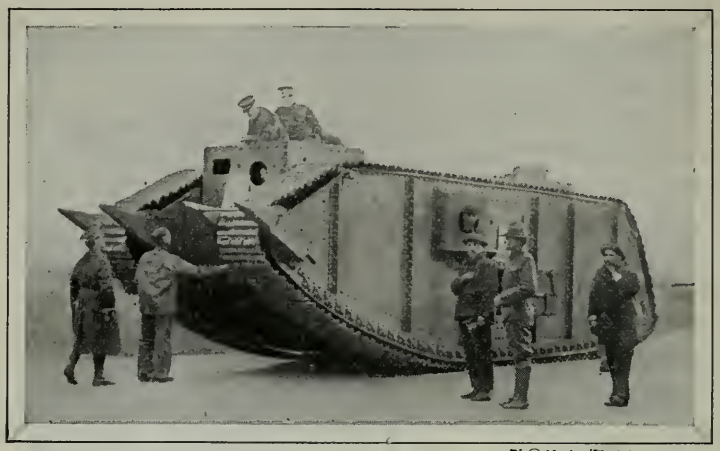
The first great help that the Americans gave the Allies was simply the cheering news that they were coming as soon as they could. To the British, French, and Belgians, standing "with their backs against the wall" after four years of hard fighting, this was encouraging.

Getting Ready to Fight. For months it seemed that on both sides of the Atlantic there were nothing but preparations. General John J. Pershing was put at the head of the American forces. Leaving the work of training the soldiers to officers whom he could trust, General Pershing went to France in June, 1917. He opened an office and began to plan how to use the American forces in the best way. There were five great departments that must be organized, each with its officers and helpers: the Training Department, which taught the men how to fight and how to protect themselves; the Coördination Department, which took the men and supplies from place to place; the Intelligence Department, which with its spies found out the facts that enabled the army to fight intelligently; the Operations Department, which directed the actual warfare; and the Administration Department, which made the arrangements for all the departments to work together.

A Field Telephone

Two American officers are shown, receiving and recording a message by telephone. This was one of the ways in which modern invention made the World War different from all wars that had come before it

When the soldiers came they were to be landed at Bordeaux, St. Nazaire, or Brest, and so these ports were prepared to receive them and to take care of shiploads of war materials. Great warehouses were built to hold supplies



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The *America*, the First American-made Tank

This fortress on wheels weighed forty-five tons and was run by steam. The caterpillar wheels enabled the tank to travel over shell holes, ditches, fences, and rubbish, while its steel sides protected the fighting men within

until they should be needed, and hospitals and camps were made ready for the men. Most of the food, clothing, medicines, motor cars, horses and mules, machines, and ammunition used by the American army in France were brought from America, and must, if possible, be ready when the troops arrived.

The Work of the Navy. Within a few weeks after the declaration of war, part of our navy was in Europe ready to help. On this side of the ocean new officers were trained, fresh sailors were enlisted, and plans were made for a huge fleet of new vessels of all kinds. Private yachts were pressed into service, and many of the special kind of boat called destroyers were built to fight the German submarines.

The British navy and, to a less extent, those of France and Italy worked with the navy of the United States. These combined navies did a great deal to win the war. They

"convoyed" freight and passenger ships; that is, they went along and kept off the enemy ships that would otherwise have destroyed both vessels and cargoes. This enabled American food to be sent to the hungry European nations, besides helping directly with the war. The ships also laid "mines" across parts of the sea where German ships might be, to blow them up. They hunted submarines and, when possible, destroyed them. The aviation, or airplane, division of the navy was very new and had to be built up from almost nothing during the war. But in spite of this it numbered about four hundred planes when the war closed, and did great service in spying out from the air what was happening. Most important of all, the navy took across two million men or protected them while they crossed, together with all sorts of supplies for the army and for the Allied peoples.

The Troops Arrive. The first soldiers to come were, of course, divisions of the regular army. Four army regiments and one regiment of marines landed at St. Nazaire on June 26, 1917. The first fighting by American troops was in the third battle of Ypres, a long battle extending through August, September, October, and the first third of November. At first the Americans were scattered about among the French and British soldiers, although Pershing planned to have them fight alone as soon as he could. Beginning with January, 1918, American divisions were as rapidly as possible put in charge of separate sectors, or parts, of the long battle line.[1]

Hoping to smash the Allied armies into surrender before many Americans could arrive, the Germans made fierce attacks in March and April, 1918. The need was so great that Pershing put aside his own plan to have the Americans fight by themselves, and sent what men he had wherever

[1] Find this long battle line on the map on page 504, and locate each place as it is mentioned in the story.

American Troops marching through a French Town

Compare the dress of these soldiers with those of the Civil War, shown on page 311. Why are the hats different? What was the color of Civil War uniforms? of World War uniforms? Why was this change made?

they were most needed. The Germans were so successful that it was necessary for all the Allies to act together, and so General Foch of France was made general in chief of all the Allied armies. The unity thus gained helped to win the war.

In the meantime the American civilians who made up the national army were being turned into soldiers as fast as this could be done. Once the men were landed in France, they were trained for a month or two and then placed, for their first taste of battle, in some part of the lines where fighting was least severe. Such careful training was necessary, because this war was so different from any that had gone before. Not only was it fought under the sea with submarines, but far up in the sky with airplanes as well. The automobile enabled officers to send their men farther

and faster than ever. The telephone and the telegraph made it possible to keep track of great numbers of men scattered over a large area. Machine guns had been made which fired hundreds of bullets in the time that Grant and Lee took to fire one. Chemists had made bombs which were thrown among enemy troops and exploded, sending off a poisonous gas. The gas spread and injured everybody around. All these things the American troops had to know about or they would have been quickly crushed by the enemy.

At the Fighting Front. By April, 1918, a considerable number of American troops were ready for work, and in May they pushed back some Germans at Cantigny. In June they helped to stop a German advance at Belleau Wood. In July the Germans made a great drive in the Marne valley near Château-Thierry, but were held back by the French and Americans. Thereupon the United States and the Allies decided upon a new step. It was to turn the tables and attack the enemy. In this attack the American troops were to have an important part. Three days after the German drive, the Allies (especially the French) and the Americans attacked the Germans, pushing them back toward Soissons after a hard fight.

The Famous Salient at St. Mihiel. The next attack by the Americans was on a larger scale. Southeast of Château-Thierry the Germans had pushed back the Allies, making a wedge-shaped dent (the military men call such a dent a salient — see the map on page 504). The south side of this wedge had been the Americans' comparatively quiet place for gathering experience since they first came over. Now they were told to break in. Under cover of the night six hundred thousand men were brought together, with all the equipment for modern warfare — heavy artillery, machine guns, airplanes, and automobiles plated with steel and

American Soldiers "digging in" for a Bomb-Proof Shelter behind the Front-Line Trenches

In France the World War was fought almost entirely from trenches, which had first been used to any great extent during the latter part of the American Civil War. In the years from 1914 to 1918, the men slept and ate in cellar-like holes such as these "doughboys" are making for themselves

armed with light artillery. A terrific rain of artillery shells was first dropped on the enemy line. Then at five o'clock on the morning of September 12, 1918, the Americans rushed on the Germans and drove them back. The great test had been met.

The Great Meuse-Argonne Offensive. Not far northwest of St. Mihiel the Germans held a strong position in the Argonne Forest in the Meuse valley. Late in September one million, two hundred thousand troops were gathered opposite the German position, and then another drive began. For more than a month the Americans bravely and stubbornly pushed the Germans back, the Germans resisting just

American Soldiers in a Front-Line Trench firing at the Enemy

Notice the "tin hats," which look like second cousins to the iron helmet of a medieval knight, the bayonets on the guns, and the gas-mask on each man's chest

as bravely and just as stubbornly. So bitter was the fighting and so great the number of men on the field that the soldiers of the United States used more ammunition than the Northern army fired during the entire four years of the Civil War.

The Collapse of the Germans. At last the long hammering which the Germans received was harder than they could bear. Six million men and boys of Germany had been killed or wounded. Her allies, Turkey and Austria, were giving up. Germany was a beaten country. The ruler of Germany, Emperor William the Second, left for the Netherlands, and his defeated people asked for peace. On November 11, 1918, an armistice was granted, and the fighting stopped. A world that was well tired of war gave itself up to singing, ringing bells, cheering, shouting, and being more happy than it had been in four years.

Counting up the Cost. Indeed, the world needed whatever of happiness it could find, for now the cost of the war must be reckoned. One hundred and eighty billion dollars

had been spent, and an equal amount of property battered to pieces by artillery, sunk in the sea by submarines, and otherwise lost through the war. Thirteen million men lay dead, more than twice the number killed in all the wars in the whole world during the hundred years from 1800 to 1900. Other millions of wounded men — blind, crippled, and sick — were scattered over all the countries that had been at war.

With such conditions staring them in the face, the Allies were not inclined to be very gentle with Germany in telling her what she must do after her surrender. Three things she was compelled to do at once:

Take back home all her troops which were still in camp in France, Belgium, and other countries.

Allow the allied troops to control most of the valley of the German river Rhine.

Give up her submarines and seventy-four war vessels to the Allies.

The Conference at Paris. While these simple things were being done, the Allies were preparing to meet at Paris and settle many other questions which the war had raised. Each of the allied nations sent its representatives to the meeting. The United States was represented by President Wilson and four other leading men.[1] England's rights were looked out for by Lloyd George, who held the office of "premier," or prime minister (which is much like that of our president). Premier Clemenceau of France and Premier Orlando of Italy were the other two most prominent men. In all there were seventy delegates from thirty-two countries, besides hundreds of advisers, newspaper men, and others. President

[1] Robert Lansing, Secretary of State; Henry White, who had for a long time been an American ambassador in Europe; Edward M. House, who knew much about the causes of the war; and General Tasker H. Bliss, who was especially acquainted with military affairs.

Wilson was perhaps the leading man of the conference, because he had suggested most of the questions to be talked about and had proposed answers to most of the questions. The seventy delegates worked hard from January to June, 1919, and at last the following things were decided upon:

In previous wars Germany and Austria had seized parts of countries which they had defeated. These were to be returned: some to France, some to Italy, and some to other nations.

In several sections of Europe there were parts of countries which wished to be free so that they might govern themselves. This was accomplished by setting up several new nations, such as Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Finland.

Germany was declared to be to blame for the war. She was to pay money to the Allies for the damage she had done and also to give coal and other materials to make up for things she had taken during the war.

To make wars less likely in the future, the Allies put into their peace treaty a plan for a League of Nations. This was a congress made up of representatives from any nation that applied for membership and was accepted. It was to meet in Switzerland, and see that the terms of the peace treaty were carried out and that no nation should again cause such a war.

Now the idea of a League of Nations was not new; it had indeed been talked about by the most forward-looking people for about two hundred years. But it had been most clearly set forth by President Wilson in 1917, as one of the things for which the war was to be fought. The statesmen of Europe do not seem to have had much faith in the idea, but to the peoples who had suffered so terribly it was the greatest ray of hope that they had ever seen. Both in Europe and in America a great hope and relief filled the hearts of the people; for in the League of Nations they thought they saw a way to prevent the horrors of war in the future. It

was natural, too, for the United States to take the lead in such a movement, for the United States had often urged and taken part in arbitration.

The Refusal of the Senate. President Wilson brought back from Paris the treaty between the Allies and Germany and gave it to the Senate to ratify. But Wilson had many enemies in the Senate, and there were some who honestly feared to go into anything so new and untried as a League of Nations. They feared that it would take away some of the powers of the United States. Some of those who had said before the war that they liked such an idea now opposed it. Some had one objection; some another. After months of debate the Senate refused to ratify the treaty. And so, although the proposal for a League of Nations came first from the United States, it did not become a member. The European nations organized the League without the United States, and it soon became a useful body which not only prevented some wars but helped the nations to do all sorts of things that they could not otherwise have done.[1]

Review

1. Test yourself to find if you know what these words mean: national, international, submarine, marines, sector, treaty ratification, machine gun, salient, artillery, secretariat.

2. Show on what each side based its hope of winning the conflict in the spring and summer of 1918.

[1] Every intelligent citizen of the modern world must know about the League of Nations; for although the United States does not belong to it, it still has much influence on American affairs. It now (1930) has a membership of fifty-four nations. Each nation sends three representatives to the Assembly at Geneva. This Assembly is a sort of lower house for the discussion of all sorts of questions. The upper house is called the Council. It now (1930) has fourteen members. Between the sessions, which begin in September of each year, business is carried on by the Secretariat, which remains in Geneva.

3. Make a list of the things that the American soldiers in the World War had to know about and do that the soldiers in the Civil War knew nothing about.

4. Put side by side a map of Europe as it was before 1919 and a map made since that year. How many changes can you find?

5. Turn to the Constitution. Find and read the part that relates to treaties. Did the Senate have a legal right to reject the peace treaty?

6. Tell a clear story of the part that the United States played in the World War.

Project and Enrichment

1. On page 486 is an account of one way in which General Pershing was trained for his work in France. Can you tell of other ways in which he was prepared for that responsibility? See *The Story of General Pershing*, by E. T. Tomlinson.

2. How did your town celebrate Armistice Day in 1918? How does it celebrate it now? What is the reason for this difference?

3. In A. R. Bond's *Inventions of the Great War* you will find many ways in which the World War differed from earlier wars, not told in the text. Give an account of these to the class.

4. Two great international peace conferences met at The Hague in 1899 and 1907. They drew up many rules as to what nations might or might not do in time of war. Most of these rules were ruthlessly broken in 1914–1918. Why?

5. The methods used to conceal ships and guns during this war introduced a new word into common use. What was it?

6. Certain ignorant and shortsighted people at the time said that America had "won the war." What is wrong with this statement? Do you think it made the Europeans like the Americans who said it?

Before Leaving Division Six

1. Debate one or more of the following subjects:
   a. *Resolved,* That the United States should not have declared war on Spain in 1898.
   b. *Resolved,* That the little islands in the Pacific and the Caribbean should be left to manage their own affairs.
   c. *Resolved,* That the United States had sufficient reasons for declaring war on Mexico in Wilson's first administration.
   d. *Resolved,* That if men are drafted to fight in a war, money and labor and every kind of property should be drafted as well.
   e. *Resolved,* That the United States should become a member of the League of Nations.

2. Prepare the following for your notebook:
   a. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Six. Let it be made in the same way as the previous *Halls* have been made.
   b. A statement of about two hundred words about each of the following: Theodore Roosevelt, William McKinley, Woodrow Wilson, Emperor Maximilian, Secretary Seward, General Pershing, James G. Blaine, Grover Cleveland.
   c. Pictures of places and people in any part of the present empire of the United States. Collect these while you are studying this division, put them on the bulletin board for a few days, then paste them into your notebook.

3. Make a map as follows:
   a. Title: The Empire of the United States.
   b. Use an outline map of the world.
   c. Locate and mark neatly each possession of the American nation. Color all American possessions a clear blue or red, so that they will stand out distinctly. Mark in black ink on each part that lies outside the area of the forty-eight states the date when it was added.

4. Be able to do the following things:
   a. Explain these words and phrases: imperialism, militarism, pacifism, empire, dollar diplomacy, arbitration, high seas, three-mile limit, Paradise of the Pacific, reciprocity treaty, naval station, Platt Amendment, customhouse, police power, sisal, watchful waiting, ABC powers.
   b. Identify, in a sentence or two, General Leonard Wood, Colonel Gorgas, Colonel Goethals, the Boxers, President Diaz, President Madero, President Carranza, Francisco Villa, Ambassador Morrow.

c. Explain why the following events and dates are of importance:
(1) 1867, the purchase of Alaska.
(2) 1872, the gift of Pago Pago.
(3) 1889, the first Pan-American Conference.
(4) 1898, the Spanish-American War.
(5) 1902, the new treaty with England concerning Panama.
(6) 1914, the Panama Canal completed.
(7) 1917, the United States enters the World War.

d. Give a floor talk on the following subjects:
(1) A Champion or a Partner?
(2) How the Monroe Doctrine grew in Meaning.
(3) How the United States Spread Out in the Pacific.
(4) Keeping our Promise to Cuba.
(5) Lessons in Good Government for Protectorates.
(6) Clinton's Big Ditch and Roosevelt's.
(7) The Nation that Couldn't Stay Out of the War.

Division Seven

America in the New Century

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Foreword

Those farsighted men who long ago founded the American nation had ideals of democracy always before them. Democracy really means an equal *chance* for all: not equal wealth, nor equal power, nor equal culture, nor equal position, but a fair chance to everybody to win for himself the highest place if his ability and industry warrant it. The ideal is being realized very slowly, of course. The colonial founders needed religious equality most of all, and won it for themselves and their neighbors. The early citizens of the nation needed political equality of opportunity, and won it when they secured manhood suffrage. Then a struggle followed to give black men a better chance, and that struggle is as yet only partly won. Several million Europeans who had not equality of opportunity at home found it in America in the later days of the nineteenth century.

When the twentieth century opened, another movement was already well on the way — the movement to make such conditions that every human being in America would have an equal chance for physical, mental, and social advancement. It would give economic and social democracy to a country that had already secured religious and political democracy. Its key word seems to be the word "sharing"; for in the first quarter of the century a multitude of events brought about more sharing of good things than the world had ever seen before. Division Seven deals with the events that brought about the new sharing, which will make social and economic democracy possible.

Three Symbols of the New Age

The skyscraper, the airplane, and the huge ocean-going steamship represent the time in which we live. This picture of the lower tip of Manhattan Island shows all three and, in the distance, Bartholdi's statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World"

ARE YOU BUSY

TO DAY?

Two Twelve-Book Libraries

I. A Day-by-Day Reference Library

These twelve books are mainly about people, but they are about the sort of people who have made history and are still making it. Use them to enrich the story gained from the following pages.

1. *On New Shores*, by Konrad Bercovici. The Century Co.

   Eighteen chapters, each telling about a different country from which our new citizens have come. Interesting drawings.

2. *Toilers of Land and Sea*, by R. H. Gabriel. Yale University Press.

   A wonderful book of pictures, with descriptions, showing the changes that have come about in two centuries of farming and fishing in America.

3. *Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt*, by Hermann Hagedorn.

   An account of the things that made Roosevelt the man he was, and of the times in which he lived and worked.

4. *Henry Ford, the Man, the Worker, the Citizen*, by J. G. de R. Hamilton. Henry Holt and Company.

   A story of how Ford met his problems, what he thinks, and what he has done.

5. *In Our Times*, edited by A. B. Hart and J. G. Curtis. The Macmillan Company.

   A good collection of episodes, narratives, and descriptions dealing with current ways of living and their historical background.

6. *The Story of Thomas Edison*, by Inez N. McFee. One of the Famous Americans for Young Readers Series. Barse & Company.

   A well-told story of a life abounding in surprises. A fine source for material on the telephone, the phonograph, the electric light, the moving-picture machine, and other great inventions that affect our daily life.

7. *The American Spirit in Architecture*, by T. F. Hamlin. Yale University Press.

   This book of good pictures is like *Toilers of Land and Sea*, one of the Pageant of America Series. It is for the boy or girl who loves beautiful buildings and begins to see the fascination which the study of architecture has for intelligent people.

8. *From Immigrant to Inventor*, by Michael Pupin. Charles Scribner's Sons.

In the simplest and most readable way this great Serb-American tells the story of his remarkable life, and at the same time gives an idea of the development of the science of physics since 1900.

9. *Letters of a Woman Homesteader*, by E. P. Stewart. Houghton Mifflin Company.

The daily life of a plucky young woman in Wyoming during the years 1909–1910. A very interesting picture of homesteading in recent times.

10. *Pilgrims of Today*, by Mary H. Wade. Little, Brown & Company.

John Muir, Jacob Riis, Mary Antin, E. A. Steiner, Carl Schurz, Nathan Straus, and Joseph Pulitzer.

11. *The Wonder Workers*, by Mary H. Wade. Little, Brown & Company.

Luther Burbank, Helen Keller, William R. George, Thomas A. Edison, Jane Addams, Dr. W. T. Grenfell, and Judge Benjamin B. Lindsey.

12. *The Melting Pot*, by Israel Zangwill. The Macmillan Company.

The story of the mixing of the peoples, which Zangwill thought would make the American people of the future.

II. A Story-Book Library

Much of the adventure in the books listed below is of a different kind from that in previous lists, but the people who have the adventure find it just as exciting as anything that happened in the days of the fathers.

1. *Three Points of Honor*, by R. G. Carter. Little, Brown & Company.

A prize Boy Scout story of courage and adventure.

2. *A Boy Scout in the Grizzly Country*, by Dick Douglas, Jr. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A clear and interesting story of modern Alaska. Pictures from photographs, including some good ones of bears.

3. *Myself when Young*, by Youel B. Mirza. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc.

A Persian boy's account of his boyhood and of some of the ways in which the new age comes to that old land.

4. *Amundsen, the Splendid Norseman*, by Bellamy Partridge. Frederick A. Stokes Company.

The story of a man who sought adventure in polar discovery, and of the end of his eventful life.

5. *David Goes Voyaging*, by David B. Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

David's own story of his voyage with William Beebe to the South Seas on the *Arcturus*. Wonderful days!

6. *David Goes to Greenland*, by David B. Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In this book David tells how, at the age of thirteen, he went to Greenland. The pictures are photographs and drawings by Kakutia, an Eskimo.

7. *The Boy with the United States Diplomats*, by Francis W. Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

This book, with the three which follow, tells of good adventure in a field that in former days was rarely open to boys. Incidentally, the books tell a great deal about the government.

8. *The Boy with the United States Naturalists*, by Francis W. Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

Intensely interesting in its account of bird life. The pictures in this and other books of the long series are from photographs.

9. *The Boy with the United States Radio*, by Francis W. Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

The title explains the content of the book.

10. *The Boy with the United States Explorers*, by Francis W. Rolt-Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co.

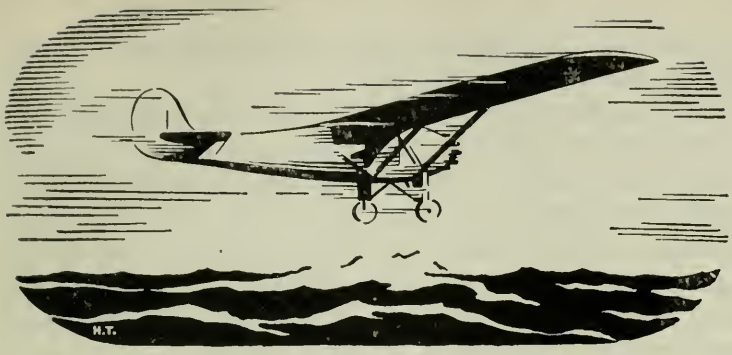
The adventure of farming in an age when farming requires scientific help.

11. *Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to his Children*, edited by J. B. Bishop. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A charming book that admits you to the family life of the Roosevelts.

12. *Yankee Ingenuity in the War*, by Frank P. Stockbridge. Harper & Brothers.

An important phase of the World War told in an interesting way. There is much about airplanes, shipbuilding, poison gas, Yankee weapons, and balloons. Nearly two hundred excellent pictures.



Division Seven

America in the New Century

UNIT I. HOW THE SCIENTISTS MADE SHARING POSSIBLE

In 1900 it was clear to people who studied American life that the movement of sharing was well afoot. The good things to be shared were very many: the wealth of the nation, its culture, its laws and civic life; the beauty of its plains and mountains and woods; and, above all, its ideals and traditions — its privilege of being an American. We have seen that in 1789, when the Constitution went into effect, most people had to work very hard, and they were happy chiefly because they were making a good country for their children. Only a small part of the nation could live comfortably, could be highly educated, could vote, and could enjoy the beautiful things made by artists.

But as the nineteenth century passed, more and more people enjoyed these good things. By 1900 many people felt that a time would come when every human being might, if he earned them, enjoy comfort, learning, and beauty. They began to make changes of various kinds to bring this time nearer; to give more and more people more and more

opportunity. Each in his own way did something to bring the new day of shared privilege.

The people whose work stood back of everyone else's work were the scientists. These men and women worked in many ways, but they all had one object: to find out the truth. They hunted for the truth about nature by studying rocks and soil, plants and animals, weather and air and stars. They hunted for the truth about people, studying them on farms and in villages and cities — rich and poor, high and low, American and foreign. They studied governments, churches, schools, societies. They probed into history to find what they might learn from the past. Whenever they found anything of importance, they told about it in meetings and wrote about it in magazines and books. In this way other scientists learned about their discoveries, and were helped to find still more truth. The government at Washington had in its bureaus and departments its own body of scientists, who worked especially on the problems that puzzled and thwarted the people.

Most scientists never become famous. They are teachers or students in universities, where much of the new truth is discovered. Or they are workers in laboratories that belong to "foundations" or to great manufacturing companies.[1] Or they are doctors in hospitals, or just "cranks" who, often at great sacrifice, devote their lives to the search for truth. A few of the greatest discoverers win a great name; but even these say that they could not make their discoveries without the help of the unknown workers in study and laboratory.

[1] A "foundation" is a huge sum of money, usually given by a rich man or family, which is so invested as to bring in a good income each year. This income is used to carry on work that will benefit the human race. Foundations put wealth to work for human welfare. Some of the most useful foundations in the United States are the General Education Board, the various Rockefeller foundations, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Russell Sage Foundation, and the Phelps Stokes Fund.

1. New Discoveries in Science

Physics and Chemistry. The new knowledge made people think of the earth in a different way. They found that the very nature of earth, air, and water, and of all the things of which they are made, is different from what our fathers thought it. The men who study physics and chemistry found that everything is made of very tiny bits of matter which are always moving very fast. They discovered new ways to make alloys, or mixtures of metals, new liquids, new gases, and new materials of all kinds. Some of these new substances are stronger and lighter than anything yet known, and are very useful for such things as airships.

Chemistry has become so important that we may say a new era of the world's history is beginning in the chemist's laboratory.[1] Chemists have found out how the tiny cells in the body act when they are treated in various ways. This knowledge helps doctors to tell people how to grow well and stay well. In 1915, after many years of experiment with different kinds of foods, E. V. McCollum and Marguerite Davis told the public about vitamins. Vitamins are substances, necessary to human growth and health, that exist in some kinds of food. Since that day doctors have been able, with some degree of certainty, to tell people what to eat. By using foods with vitamins in them, doctors can now control rickets, scurvy, and beriberi,—diseases that once caused a great deal of suffering and loss of life. By means of other discoveries made in laboratories the danger from such diseases as diabetes and goiter has been reduced. The conquest of disease helps to build up the nation, since it makes healthy human beings who can support themselves.

[1] Ask a teacher to take you through a high-school laboratory and tell you what all the strange-looking outfit there is for. Of course, a scientist's laboratory is far more complicated than a school laboratory.

Solving the Yellow-Fever Puzzle. Among the worst of epidemic diseases was yellow fever. This fever usually came to the United States from Cuba or South America. No one knew how it started or how to stop it. It attacked and killed mercilessly. In 1878, for instance, a yellow-fever epidemic swept up the Mississippi from New Orleans, claiming sixteen thousand lives within a few weeks.

After the Spanish-American War, General William C. Gorgas "cleaned up" Havana. He did it so thoroughly that from being for centuries a wretchedly dirty city, Havana suddenly became one of the cleanest cities in the world. Yellow fever, however, did not cease. A Cuban physician, Dr. Carlos Finlay, had a theory that a certain kind of mosquito spreads this disease by biting its victims. Dr. Walter Reed and a body of helpers made experiments to see if this theory was true. They found that Dr. Finlay was right. Then Gorgas did a very wonderful thing: he showed the people of Havana how to kill all that species of mosquito. At once yellow fever ceased. This was in 1901. Word was spread of the discovery; and wherever the mosquito was destroyed, the plague of yellow fever was ended.

Some diseases are not yet mastered by the scientists, but at least the suffering which they cause is being reduced. Chemists have discovered new and better anæsthetics; that is, substances which make people unconscious under treatment or operation. They have made drugs that will produce sleep without harming the patient. They have even reduced the danger of heart disease, which today (1930) is the disease most dangerous to life in America.[1] They have increased

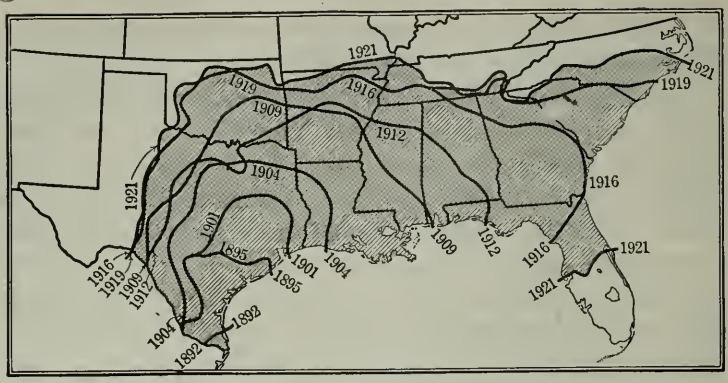
[1] Some years ago tuberculosis, or consumption, was the disease from which most people died. Doctors and teachers and nurses taught people how to prevent and cure it, and as a result it is now seventh in the list of dangerous diseases. Heart disease, cancer, influenza, pneumonia, and accidents all cause more deaths than tuberculosis. This change shows what can be done when doctors and people alike resolve to conquer a disease.

the average life of man from a little over forty-nine years in 1900 to about fifty-five years in 1930.

Pure Water and Pure Food. The great cities, which grew greater and greater after 1900, required almost unlimited supplies of water. Engineers built the huge reservoirs and pipe lines which brought the water to the cities, and for the smaller places they drilled deep wells. Chemists are stationed in the great water plants of cities, watching to see that no dangerous substance endangers the lives of the people. State chemists analyze the samples of water sent them from farms and villages and warn the citizens if poisons or germs lurk there. Green plants called algæ, which feed on dangerous germs, are placed in the streams to purify the waters as they flow toward the sea.

In matters of food the chemist with his test tube stands guard over the public health. He can tell exactly what is in any kind of food that he examines and whether it will hurt men or animals. When the people began to hear of the harm that bad food was doing, they began to ask the government to punish those who made or sold dirty and harmful food. The result was the Pure Food and Drugs Act of 1906. This law says that food must be truthfully labeled: if it is apple jelly mixed with hayseed and flavored with coal-tar flavoring, it must not call itself strawberry jam; if it is chopped veal, it must not be labeled potted chicken. The law has been well enforced, and as a result the general public now has good, wholesome food and knows what it is buying. Patent medicines likewise must be labeled with a list of their contents. This means that if people use so-called medicines which contain opium or other harmful things, they at least know what they are doing.

Plants and Animals. The scientists laid the foundations of progress in another field. They studied plants and animals and found out a world of new knowledge about them.



The March of the Cotton-Boll Weevil

This map shows how the boll weevil, the worst insect pest in America, spread after entering the country from Mexico. No remedy has yet been found for it

They hunted for new species and varieties that would fill some need. In this way the soy bean was brought from Japan and China and became a widely useful plant in the United States. The scientists studied the insects which ruin the farmer's crops, such as the cotton-boll weevil and the corn-borer. They have not been able to conquer these pests as yet, but they are still working on the problems.

Other scientists have developed new kinds of plants and better animals by careful breeding. Most people know that Luther Burbank produced many wonderful new fruits, vegetables, and flowers on his California farm by combining the most desirable kinds. They do not know, however, that many other men, working in universities or government stations, have produced results quite as wonderful. The fruit which is sold today on fruit stands all over the country is far larger and finer in flavor than most of that sold in 1900. In this way also the guayule (pronounced *gwä yo͞o lā*) plant was found in Mexico and southern Texas, was tested, and was found to contain rubber. Its cultivation, begun on a small scale about 1906, has increased steadily ever since.

This little shrub now produces yearly about one hundred and fifty million pounds of rubber, and may in time produce all that is needed in the United States. It grows in California and other parts of the Southwest.

The Department of Agriculture. In 1889 a Department of Agriculture was established, with its chief in the president's cabinet. Scarcely a year passes that does not see some new helpful service given to the farmers of the country by this department. Its experts find out the best methods by careful test and send this information wherever it can do good. They write hundreds of pamphlets on all sorts of topics that interest farmers and their wives, explaining clearly what is known about these topics. These pamphlets cost the farmer little or nothing and bring him the latest information. They teach him how to rotate his crops to save his soil, how to vary and combine farm crops, how to tell what is wrong with his soil or his drainage, how to raise every kind of plant and animal that American farms produce, how to save good seed, how to improve live stock, and how to make his home attractive and healthful. Through the Department of Agriculture new crops are introduced that often prove immensely valuable; alfalfa is such a crop. Finally, the Weather Bureau sends out daily reports which aid the farmer, and another bureau sends out crop reports.[1]

Animals that are Friends of Men. The scientists found that man's prosperity really depends on help from all sorts of animals, birds, insects, and friendly germs. They found that birds, for instance, destroy harmful insects which, if they were not kept down in numbers, would eat all the green things on the earth and leave it a barren waste. Since this is so, it is clear that birds need protection from the ignorant

[1] Additional services of this most useful department are the enforcing of the Pure Food and Drugs Act, the care of forest reservations, and the inspection of meat at packing houses.

who shoot them for food or destroy them for their feathers. In 1903 the first bird sanctuaries were established by President Roosevelt on the public lands. Since then many others have been set apart by state and national governments and by city park boards. Here no one may harm the birds, and here they may increase their numbers and obtain food. From these woodland homes they spread over the land and do their good work of protecting the trees and crops.

Reindeer in Alaska

The sure-footed reindeer, like mountain sheep, find a living in the low-growing shrubs and mosses of the mountain pastures. (Courtesy of Lomen Brothers, Nome, Alaska)

Reindeer in Alaska. An example of governmental help to which scientists have pointed the way is the development of the reindeer industry in Alaska. In 1890, or thereabouts, it was reported that the Eskimos in Alaska were starving because the whales and the walruses, on which they depended for food, were being killed by white men. Between 1892 and 1902, on the advice of Dr. Sheldon Jackson, a friend of the Eskimos, the United States government brought twelve hundred and eighty head of reindeer from Siberia to Alaska. They were given to young men who had first taken a course

A Muskrat Farm

This swamp, which certainly does not look like a farm, has been made profitable by using it to raise muskrats. What looks like a small haystack is a muskrat house, built somewhat like a beaver house by the little animals themselves. The muskrat was so little valued in 1850 that its pelt sold for eight cents in the London market; today its pelt is worth about two dollars in New York. It is the most useful of all furs, because it is strong and wears well, and because it can be dyed and dressed to look like more expensive furs

of study in their care and use. The reindeer seemed to feel at home at once, and they so multiplied that there were over a million head in 1928. They gave the Eskimos food, clothing, bone for carving, transportation (including a postal service), and an export in the form of meat. From having nothing but what they could catch in the sea, the Alaskan Eskimos became prosperous herdsmen. They now have a means of trade with the states, for reindeer meat is well liked to the south. Americans have gone to Alaska and taken up reindeer culture with great success. Thus a new grazing industry, in a region where grazing land is still plentiful, has partly taken the place of the old cattle industry, which is no longer profitable in the United States.

A New Domestication Movement. Long before man could make a written record of his deeds he had domesticated the dog, the cow, the camel, and the sheep. Other common animals followed, and then a long period of history passed with very few additions to the list of domestic animals. In our own times, however, because the scientists show how useful tamed animals can be, there is a new era of domestication. The remaining wild animals are slowly becoming tame. Among them are the fur-bearing animals, which are now raised on farms in Canada and the United States. In the past the warmth and beauty of fur was a luxury for the rich; today almost every woman has a fur collar on her coat. Farm-raised fur is better and cheaper than trapped fur. As the wild animals grow scarcer, and as farm-raised fur is used more and more, trapping has to die out. This means that the hard life of the trapper is giving way to the more comfortable and settled life of the farmer.

The larger birds — chickens, geese, ducks — were domesticated long ago in Asia. Americans are trying to domesticate the turkey, which does not take to civilized life very kindly. Now, because they are learning that man is their friend, the smallest birds are losing their fear wherever they are protected.

Review

1. How many things can you list which happened during the twentieth century and which helped to divide among many people what had formerly been the privilege of a few?

2. List the famous scientists whose work made life easier and happier for the people during the twentieth century.

3. Compare the nature and cure of smallpox and yellow fever. Do you find anything in common between the two?

4. Make two lists of domesticated animals and birds: one for those tamed long ago and one for those now being tamed.

Project and Enrichment

1. Read Mark Sullivan's *Our Times*, Vol. II, pp. 502–509, for examples of the way in which chemists used to deceive the public before the Pure Food and Drugs Act was passed.

2. How many articles can you find in your own home which are labeled as directed by the Pure Food and Drugs Act?

3. What means is taken to make the water you drink pure and good?

4. Do you eat any vegetables and fruits that were unknown to your parents in their childhood? Can you find out how they were introduced?

5. What scientific studies have you already had in your school course? What ones are given in your high school? Why do schools offer elementary-science courses to all pupils?

6. Did you ever have an anti-fly campaign in your community? If so, why? Do flies bear any relation to disease?

2. Some New Sciences and their Service

Psychology. A new science which made great progress after 1900 was psychology. This is the study of how the mind works. Scientists made many experiments, and they changed their minds so often about what the results of their experiments meant that ordinary people could scarcely keep up with them. The best of the psychologists are very careful in what they say, for they realize that their science is new and uncertain. But even with this difficulty psychology has already helped the human race immensely. It has helped teachers, especially, to teach their pupils more skillfully than they formerly did. Expert teaching, once the privilege of a few boys and girls, has now become the privilege of thousands all over the land. Psychology has also helped parents to know how to rear their children in better ways. These improvements are largely due to the better knowledge of boys' and girls' minds which psychology gives.

Sociology. Another new science, sociology, deals with the relationship of people to one another; for instance, it tries to find out why people cannot live together happily and peacefully. Often it is able to tell them how to end their differences and be happier than they have ever been. It studies "institutions" — families, churches, schools, theaters, newspapers, and governments. It tries to find out in what respects these institutions are helpful and in what respects they fail. By using what the sociologists tell them, the people who run these institutions can often change them to make them more useful. Sociology helps in the sharing of happiness by making us more intelligent about the society we live in.

Economics. The science of economics is older than sociology and psychology, for it began in Washington's day or earlier. Since 1900 it has made great progress in building up a knowledge of how wealth is made, divided, and destroyed. Its greatest problem is what is called distribution, — the question as to how the nation's wealth is to be divided among the people, which seems to be an especially important question in these days.

But the greatest thing which has happened to the study of economics is not that it is especially different from what it was before 1900, but that so many more people now know something of it. A generation ago thousands of grown people in the United States did not even know what economics was about. Perhaps they had never heard of it. Now most high-school boys and girls study it. It helps them to understand wages, the cost of living, taxes, tariffs, business ways, and a dozen other things that everybody has to deal with sooner or later.

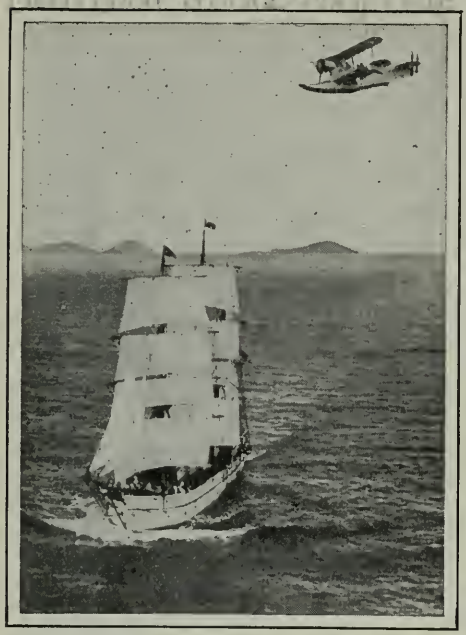
Better Marketing Methods. The economist helps people in many practical ways. We have seen that by using the coöperative idea farmers sold their milk, butter, and

fruit to better advantage than by the old way of each man's finding a market for himself (see page 385). After 1900 this method spread to other fields, such as the selling of wheat and potatoes. For a time this helped farmers to be very prosperous; but after the World War they suffered so terribly through the loss of their markets and from overproduction that not even coöperative selling could keep their heads above water. When Mr. Hoover became president he appointed a Farm Commission to study the farmers' problems, with the idea especially of finding better selling methods for them. This, of course, is the business of economists.

A great change in the marketing of meat began before 1900 but has become general since then. The farmer used to sell his fatted hog or beef to a local butcher, or to a drover who took the animals to a city and sold them to the butchers. But it was found to be very wasteful to kill one or two animals at a time and to keep up thousands of slaughterhouses all over the land. By 1900 most of the meat animals were shipped in carloads to the great cities, where packing companies killed, dressed, and packed the carcasses. They were then sent back in refrigerator cars to the very town, perhaps, from which they had been shipped. Sometimes they were kept a long time in cold storage, which also housed vegetables, fruit, and eggs until these were wanted. The economists suggested or explained such systems as this, and helped to establish them, in ways that saved time and money for the people.

Geography and Exploration. Both geography and exploration are very ancient sciences, but after 1900 they made progress in new ways and in new places. New and more delicate machines enabled scholars to study such things as cyclones, tornadoes, and earthquakes. They have not found how to prevent such misfortunes, but they are now often able to warn people, on sea and on land, when danger is

coming. Geography became a more exact and interesting science. At the same time men were exploring the last unknown corners of the earth and mapping them. Many of these maps were made from actual photographs taken from airplanes and were more accurate than those of former days. The explorers pushed into central Africa, into unknown Tibet, and into the icy regions about the poles.



Admiral Byrd's Flagship

The *City of New York*, Admiral Byrd's flagship for the Antarctic expedition of 1929–1930, was an ice-cutter. It is shown here under full sail passing through the Panama Canal. The base of the expedition was at Little America, on the Bay of Whales. From this point Byrd with his seventy-five helpers explored, by dog-sled and airplane, the little-known wastes near the south pole

Many Americans had a part in this extension of geographical knowledge. Theodore Roosevelt explored a hitherto unknown river in Brazil in 1913. Donald MacMillan led arctic voyages to Crocker Land in 1915 and to Baffin Land in 1921. William Beebe studied the life of the South Seas and the Caribbean in 1920 and later. In 1926 Roy Chapman Andrews and his associates found new records of extinct animals in Central Asia, and about the same time Carl Akeley in Africa and Herbert J. Spinden in Yucatan were adding to the sum of human knowledge. In 1929

Admiral Byrd led a scientific expedition to the little-known regions about the south pole, mapping lands hitherto uncharted. This expedition was the first to the antarctic regions which kept constantly in touch with its homeland by means of radio; and as a result thousands of people in America and even in Europe shared in the high adventure of Byrd and his scientists as they discovered new truths about Antarctica.

Review and Project

1. With what do the three sciences of psychology, sociology, and economics deal? How are they related in the work of making a better country?

2. Borrow a high-school textbook on social problems or economics and look at its table of contents. How many things treated there affect your own lives directly or indirectly?

3. How many things can you list on the blackboard for which people need the help of economists to make conditions better?

4. Give a map talk or a chalk-talk on the subject "New Knowledge of the South Polar Regions gained by the Byrd Expedition." Find your information in newspapers or magazines.

UNIT II. HOW THE INVENTORS MADE THE MEANS OF SHARING

After the scientist comes the inventor. He uses the knowledge that the scientist has found, uses his metals and chemicals and rules, and makes something useful for man. It is impossible to speak of even a small fraction of the useful inventions that were given to the world between 1900 and 1930. During this period the United States Patent Office granted about forty thousand patents a year to their inventors. The following pages tell about a few inventions which were most influential in changing the lives of Americans.

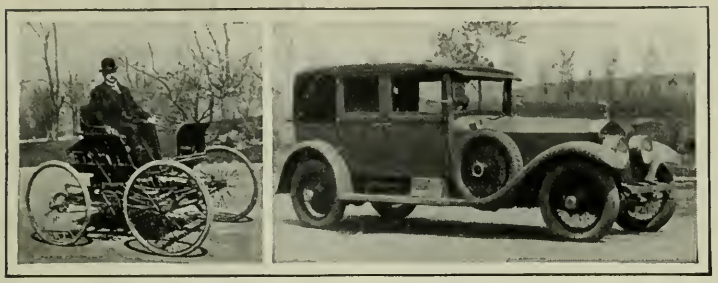
1. The Wonderful "Horseless Carriage"

Horseless vehicles of various kinds were invented in Europe and America in George Washington's time, but for some reason people were not generally interested in them. In 1804 Oliver Evans ran a heavy steam-power automobile through the streets of Philadelphia. From time to time others tried, but met only with ridicule and discouragement. But in 1863 men learned to make gasoline from the petroleum of the Pennsylvania oil fields, and this gave them the fuel that was needed. From 1879 to 1895 George B. Selden was trying to secure a patent on an automobile which used gasoline for fuel.

While this patent was "pending" the news came to America that automobiles had been invented and were being used in Europe. Ingenious mechanics here and there began to make "horseless carriages." In 1893 and 1894 several of these inventors succeeded in making cars that really did, to the surprise of the general public, go without horses. Some ran by steam, some by electricity, and some by gasoline.[1]

The American people were interested in automobiles, and they had money to spend for them. In 1900 there were seven companies making cars which were still making them in 1930. There were about eight thousand cars in the country as the new century dawned. In the early years automobiles were expensive, unreliable, and even dangerous. They were used for sport and pleasure, but men still depended on the horse for work. Besides, roads were generally bad in America in 1900, and automobiles were not yet able to pull through deep mud. Horses were always being called on to rescue

[1] Two of the best-known inventors were Charles Duryea of Chicopee Falls, Massachusetts, whose "buggyaut" made seven to eight miles an hour in 1893, and Elwood Haynes of Kokomo, Indiana, whose car ran successfully in 1894. Mr. Haynes became the first manufacturer of motor cars.



Elwood Haynes in his First Automobile, and a Modern Automobile

mired cars, to the amusement of the world. In the early years after 1900 everyone laughed at automobiles except the very rich or the "natural-born mechanics" who drove them.

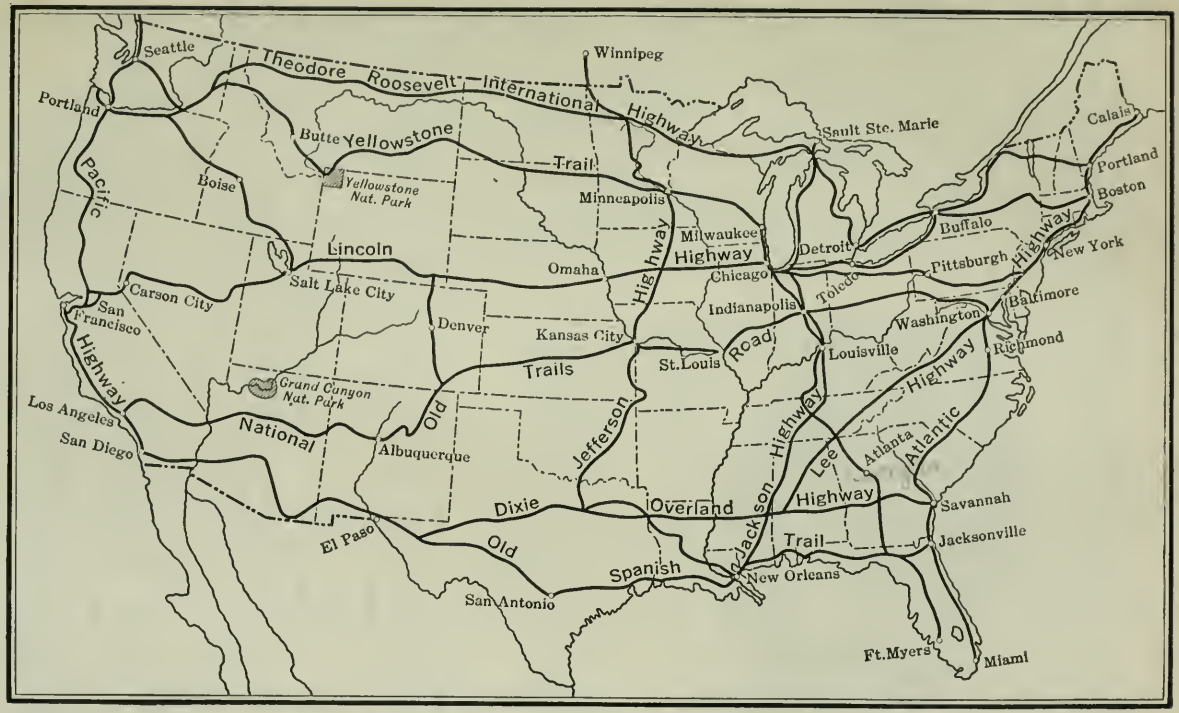
The Motor Age Arrives. Soon after 1900, however, there came a change. The early automobiles had usually been handmade, and often made to order. In 1900 one manufacturer tried the experiment of making four hundred automobiles by machinery, exactly alike. He offered them for sale just as he would have offered four hundred shovels. People bought them all, and two years later he made and sold ten times as many. Other manufacturers did the same, and in a few years the automobile was a common sight.

The most famous of the "mass-production" manufacturers was Henry Ford, who began to make cars in 1903. He, among others, but far more than any other, did two things that helped to bring a new era to the world. First, he produced a car that "would get you there and get you back," at the price of $600 or even less, a price that farmers and tradesmen could pay. Secondly, after his factory had grown great he paid his workmen at least $5 a day. At the same time he insisted that they be sober and industrious. The cheap Ford car made quick transportation for work or pleasure the privilege of the average citizen, not merely of the rich. The wage of $5 a day and up enabled Ford workers

to live and save money. It gave workmen a chance to dress, eat, and live so well that they gained new self-respect and began to do the same things that merchants and professional men did and to think like them too. Mr. Ford said that his men worked better than poorly paid workers and that it was profitable to give high wages. Other business men who tried the same plan with equally intelligent workers found that they had the same results. High wages made for more production and more profits.

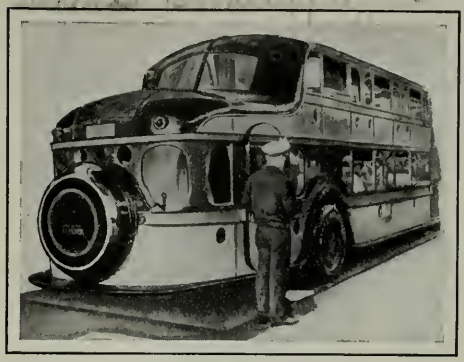
Good-by to Bad Roads! Another important result of the coming of the motor car was the improvement of the roads. At the close of the nineteenth century American roads were generally so bad that they caused a great deal of loss. Farmers often could not take their crops to market because the roads were knee-deep in mud. In the summer people could not ride into the country for pleasure, because the roads were filled with dust. In the eighteen-nineties several of the Eastern states began a movement for better roads, which was taken up later by the Middle-West and Western states. In 1916 the Federal government passed a Federal Aid Roads Act by which the nation and states worked together to make good roads. The great central highways were built first; then the "feeders," the less-used highways that led from farm and village to the main trails. By 1925 the United States was covered with a network of good roads from coast to coast. There had been less than ten miles of concrete road in the whole country in 1900; in 1930 there were over forty thousand miles of this kind of road alone.

The Era of the Bus. As soon as motor cars became comfortable and safe, people began to use them for short trips instead of using railway trains. It became common for people to go on their summer vacations in their own cars. Throughout the West hospitable towns provided free camps in the neighboring fields or woods where there were good



The Transcontinental Trails

drinking water and places for camp fire and tent. One of the first great results of the automobile was that vacations, once the privilege of the wealthy, became the common custom of people of small means. Thousands of people learned to appreciate the outdoors for the first time. Travel became a common experience.



An Automobile Sleeping Coach carrying Twenty-six Passengers

As in railway travel, early travel by bus was in short stages, with stops for meals and sleep. The sleeping coach permits the bus traveler to make a continuous journey, if he wishes, across the continent from Boston or New York to Los Angeles or Seattle

Moreover, the motor car replaced the railway in its own field. Early in the century "jitney" cars in hundreds of towns carried travelers to town or back for a nickel. Sometimes the street-car companies drove the jitneys out of business; but when they did this, motor busses often appeared. These were first made by putting long seats into trucks; about 1920 the car manufacturers began to make busses. These at once became popular in the Pacific-coast states and soon came to make longer and longer trips toward the center of the continent. Busses appeared in the East, going from city to city. Early in 1928 the first transcontinental bus rolled into New York City. Long bus lines, with regular schedules like railroad trains, now compete with railroads or are connected with them. The busses are popular for several reasons: they are quieter than trains, they travel along country roads and give city people a glimpse of country life, and they are cheaper than travel by railroad.

2. The Coming of the Iron Man

The "Iron Man" is a term used to describe the machine that now does the work once done by man's muscles.[1] It can never think for man; but it can relieve him of hard labor, leaving him fresh for the task of thinking. The Iron Man has already changed the lives of millions of human beings, and it is still at its great work of remaking the world. Since 1900 it has been especially active. Let us see what it has done.

Mechanical Power on the Farm. Thankful as farmers were for the Ford car, it is probable that Old Dobbin was even more so. And as he stood comfortably in his stall or kicked up his heels in the pasture while the family Ford took father and the boys to town for bread and butter and canned tomatoes, even better days were in store for him.[2] About 1910 there began to appear gasoline tractors, which took the place of horses in plowing, cultivating, and harvesting. They were more powerful than horses; and since they ate only when they worked, they were more economical. With such power at his command the farmer used three or six plows at a time and plowed a broad strip where once he made a single furrow. This multiple plow is called a gang plow.

The Iron Man in the Dairy. Scientists were telling people that they should drink more milk, and great dairy farms grew up to answer the need. But it was hard to find enough men to do the milking, since milkers must be clean

[1] The term came into general use after the publication of Arthur Pound's *Iron Man in Industry*, in 1922.

[2] The Iron Man now baked the bread, churned the butter, and canned the tomatoes. It was as good a friend to the farmer's wife as to the men of the family. It even condescended to become an Iron Laundress when it washed the clothes in a washing-machine and an Iron Hen when it hatched the chickens in an incubator.

and skillful, and gentle with the cows. The problem was solved by milking-machines, which were installed in the great barns where the cows are kept at night. Other machines deliver water and food to each cow's manger.

During this period a method of storing green food for winter feeding was perfected. The tall storage towers, or silos, are now a common sight in all dairy states. The fodder is cut while it is still green, is given special treatment to make it wholesome, and is stored in the silos. The cattle are more healthy with this green food than with dry hay only. New foods, such as alfalfa and the soy bean, came into general use about this time.

The Iron Man in Industry. In a thousand ways machinery took the place of men in industry. It handled great logs with its iron arms and legs, so that one lumberman with his machines did the work of a score of men. Great cranes lifted heavy loads of stone and brick for buildings; once these materials were carried on hods on men's backs. Others loaded or unloaded ships or transferred wheat or coal from railroad train to ship's hold. Shipping was largely remade by machinery — from the mechanical stoker, which took the place of man and shovel in the hold, to the gyropilot on the bridge, which held the ship to its course, machines took over much of the work of the sailor. Iron shovels dug great holes in the earth in a few days. The Mergenthaler linotype made melted metal into columns of type ready for printing, faster than a man could write on a typewriter the words to be printed.

The Robot. For a long time people had been suggesting that soon somebody would invent a machine that would hear and see and act like a man and do a man's work, and had been writing stories and plays about what such a machine might do. Then in 1927 an electrician named R. J. Wensley invented the televox, which was at once put to

Weeding by Tractor

This gasoline tractor pushes five weeders for spring wheat on a farm in Adams County, Washington. It does the work of ten horses, and the driver takes the place of five men. Three wheat drills may be used instead of the five weeders

Cutting Grain on a Wheat Farm with Power-Driven Machinery

work by the United States War Department. Three of these machines watch the height of the water in the reservoirs that supply Washington, and when they are called up by telephone they report as exactly as would a careful watchman. In the same year a ship sailed on the ocean and was steered without a helmsman. Robots are simply iron men which receive orders, give replies, or obey their masters by electrical devices. There are very few of them as yet, but no one knows what is to come.

Unemployment and the Iron Man. The Iron Man does all these things easily, economically, and well. But every time a machine takes the place of a man or six men or twenty men, it throws that many men out of employment. The Iron Man keeps the problem of the workless man always before the people. Many men who lose their jobs do not know how to do anything else. Sometimes they know how, but there are more men than jobs. There seem to be too many people in the world for the amount of work.

Some economists who have studied this question say that the Iron Man has not only brought the problem but the answer as well. They call attention to the case of the men thrown out of work by the automobile. These men were blacksmiths, carriage-makers, horse-dealers, harness-makers, and keepers of livery stables. But the number of men employed in making and selling automobiles, in keeping gasoline stations, and in driving cars is far larger than the number thrown out of work by the passing of the horse. The American automobile industry has even drawn mechanics from Europe to supply its needs. On the whole, the men who work in the various parts of the automobile industry are of higher intelligence than the men who worked with horses. They must be, for the machine has no intelligence of its own. A machine age requires more intelligence in men than was needed before the machines came.

One trouble with unemployment is, then, that many men are not intelligent enough to adapt themselves to an era when everything changes rapidly. They cannot go from one employment to another easily. This lack of intelligence may be due to a lack of natural ability or to a lack of education. Then, men may use the Iron Man to produce more goods than are needed; in this case men have to stop working until the public has used up the extra supply. In fact, all sorts of problems arise, not because machines are bad but because men do not yet know how to use them well. These problems filled the years from 1900 to 1930 and are still with us.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. Divide paper or blackboard into three columns for the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth centuries. In each column list the means for transportation. Ask your teacher to explain how friction slows speed and adds to expense. Do you see any change in the control of friction as time passes? Could automobiles and trains run if there were no friction?

2. The World War caused a great increase in American shipping, which had almost died out after the Civil War. Remembering the years 1790–1815, can you explain this?

3. In 1922 the shippers asked for a money aid, or subsidy, to help them restore shipping to its old place among American industries. The farmers opposed the measure. Why?

4. Does a national road or trail pass through or near your town? How old is it? Who pays to keep it up? Was it a good road before automobile days?

5. What is the railroad fare from your town to New York? the bus fare? airplane fare? Why these differences?

6. Think of another field in which many men have been thrown out of work by a machine. Have a greater number found work since? Are the men in the new employments more or less intelligent, on the whole, than the men in the old ones?

3. The Birdmen

For many centuries men looked at the birds flying in the sky and wished that they might be as free and swift as those winged creatures. The Greeks told stories of men who fastened wings to their shoulders and sailed the air, but these stories were only myths. About 1492 the great Italian Leonardo da Vinci drew plans for a flying machine, but it was never made. In 1783 the French brothers Montgolfier showed Benjamin Franklin the first balloon that made a safe ascent into the air. In 1848 an Englishman by the name of Stringfellow flew a steam-driven plane which carried no passenger. But on December 17, 1903, for the first time in the world's history, Wilbur and Orville Wright made four successful flights in an airplane carrying a man. This was at Kittyhawk, North Carolina.[1] The Wright brothers then gave up their business of making bicycles at Dayton, Ohio, and spent all their time on experiments in flying. Their sister believed in them and helped them.

Success! Few people in America paid any attention to the work of the Wrights, although they made steady progress for several years. Most people refused to believe that flight had actually taken place. "I'll believe it when I see it" was their attitude. But in France, where there was an Aëro Club, the story of the Wright flight caused great excitement. The French realized that the day of air navigation had at

[1] Earlier in the same month Dr. Samuel Pierpont Langley, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington and a notable scientist, had twice given the signal to launch an airplane that he had made. On both occasions the airplane failed to fly. Langley's earlier experiments, made without a passenger, had succeeded. People laughed at him, and he died in 1905 a disappointed man. In 1914 the Langley plane was tested at Hammondsport, New York, and flew successfully. This plane is to be seen in the Smithsonian Institution. Its early failures are said to be due to injury to the wings in the take-off. It is clear that Langley and the Wright brothers were both actual inventors of flying planes.

last dawned. The Wrights secured patents in France, and many French planes were made from their plans. They were invited to Europe, where they were received as great men; on their return to their own country they found themselves famous there too. English scientists carefully investigated their work, and said that they had really invented the first workable airplanes.

Famous Record Flights. Now there came a series of flights which reminded people of the great days of Queen Elizabeth, when brave men vied with one another to see who could sail farthest on the Seven Seas. In 1910 Walter Wellman made the first attempt to cross the Atlantic Ocean in an airship. He flew about eight hundred miles eastward from Atlantic City, New Jersey, but had to give up the attempt and return in a steamship.[1] In the meantime the navies and armies of several nations, including the United States, were experimenting with different kinds of airships and planes. These were greatly improved during the World War. As soon as that conflict was over, men again turned their attention to record-making. The first nonstop flight across the Atlantic was made by Captain John Alcock, an Englishman, and Lieutenant Arthur W. Brown, an American. On June 14, 1919, they flew from Newfoundland to Ireland in sixteen hours and twelve minutes.

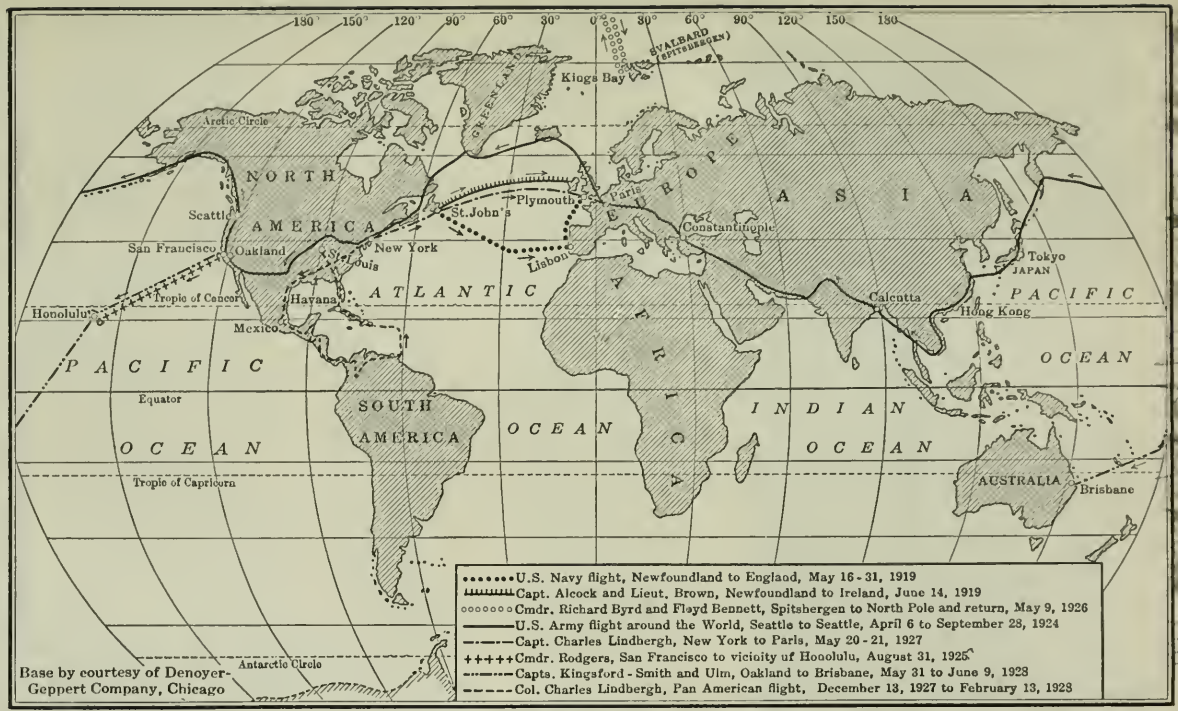
In 1924 several officers of the United States army went round the world in airplanes, the first circumnavigation by air. In 1926 Commander Richard Byrd with Floyd Bennett flew without a stop from Spitsbergen to the north pole and back, a flight of much scientific importance. Soon after this another plane, with the explorers Amundsen, Ellsworth, and Nobile, flew clear over the pole from Italy to Alaska.

[1] In 1873 three men in a balloon had started for Europe from New York. They landed at New Canaan, Connecticut, and sensibly gave up the attempt.

"The Lone Scout of the Sky." None of these flights, important as they were, created the general interest that the whole world felt in Lindbergh's famous flight. Early in the dawn of May 20, 1927, Captain Charles A. Lindbergh set off from Long Island in the *Spirit of St. Louis*, bound for the land of Saint Louis, which is France. Without mishap or delay he sped to the landing field outside Paris, where a huge crowd awaited his descent the next day. His modesty and simplicity won the hearts of the French, and he returned to America the greatest international hero of recent years. The American government then employed Lindbergh to map out and open mail airways in the New World, especially in Latin America. The airplane mail service, which was begun in 1928, is so much quicker than that by ship and railroad that it seemed at once to bring all the countries so united much closer to one another. And as the air routes made business easier, so the friendly, quiet Colonel Lindbergh who opened the routes expressed a closer friendship among the American countries.

Airships. While airplanes were yearly becoming stronger and more reliable, airships also were being developed and making records of their own.[1] In 1919 a British airship came from Scotland to Long Island with twenty-nine men aboard and returned safely. In 1924 the German government sent to the United States its *ZR–3*, which was renamed the *Los Angeles* and became a famous airship in America. In 1928 Captain Dr. Hugo Eckener began passenger service across the Atlantic with the *Graf Zeppelin*, a beautiful silvery,

[1] An airplane has an engine which propels it through the air, and its wings and rudder control the direction of its flight. An airship is kept in the air by a huge bag filled with a gas lighter than air. It is guided by a rudder and by fins somewhat like those of a fish. The airship has been developed from the balloon, whereas the airplane is really a mechanical bird. The airplane was preceded by the glider, which is a box or car with wings but without a gas bag or an engine.



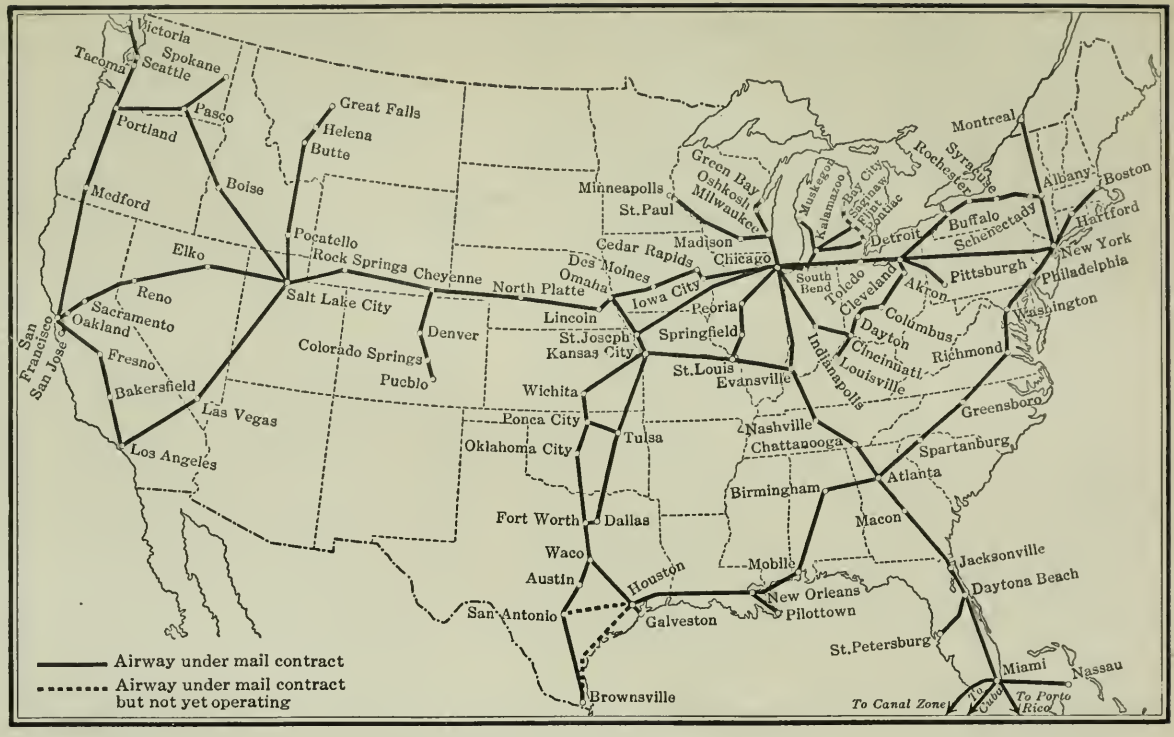
Air Voyages of American Pilots

The *City of Los Angeles*

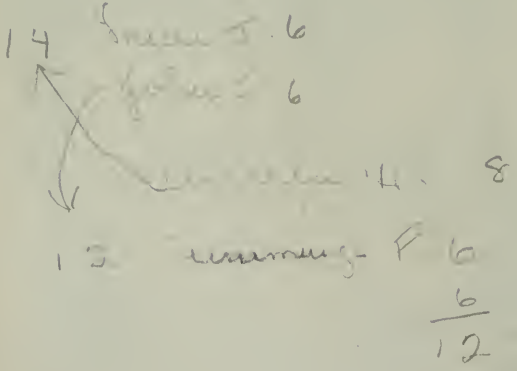
Her first flight was from Los Angeles eastward, July 8, 1929. At this time a cross-continent service by rail and airplane in forty-eight hours was begun. The day trips were by air; the night trips by train. The planes used had three motors and carried ten passengers in a comfortable cabin, luncheon and tea being served on the way by a courier who looked after the passengers. The route lay through Kingman (Arizona), Albuquerque (New Mexico), Kansas City, St. Louis, and Columbus to New York. Over seventy weather stations kept the two pilots informed of conditions by radio and teletype

fishlike airship. This airship went round the world the next year, taking nine passengers all the way, and others for part of the trip. The time was twenty-one days, including stops (the shortest time ever made), of which eleven days were the flying time.

Passenger Planes. Among the Europeans who heard of the Wright brothers and followed in their footsteps was Ivor Sikorsky, a Russian. Sikorsky made experiments with large planes; for he thought that if he could make a plane big enough to carry two or more engines, this would make aviation safer. If one engine broke down, another could still keep the plane aloft. Moreover, bigger planes could carry more, and thus be more useful. In the war Sikorsky made bombing planes for the Allies. Later he became an American



Air-Mail Routes in the United States



citizen and one of the makers of "amphibian" planes, which can take off from land or water or alight on either. The big multimotored plane can be used for passengers or freight. It has made possible the transcontinental passenger service. In 1929 several regular air lines were established which people used, although they were still much more expensive than travel by railroad. The air mail carried a letter from New York to San Francisco in thirty-four hours.[1]

Government Control for Safety. The United States has put flying matters under the control of an Assistant Secretary of Commerce for Aëronautics and has made a great many regulations to secure safety. Regular air routes have been laid out and lighted by beacons. All planes must pass an inspection and be licensed before they can be used for freight, mail, or passenger service. Flying schools are listed and rated. Flyers' licenses are of three kinds: private pilots, who are trained amateurs; limited commercial pilots for freight planes; and transport pilots for passenger service.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. More information about aviation and aviators is to be found in *Aviation Stories*, by Jay E. Thomson; *The Lone Scout of the Sky*, published by the Boy Scouts of America; Ray Stannard Baker's *Boys' Book of Invention*; A. R. Bond's *Inventions of the Great War*; and Humphreys and Hosey's *The Romance of the Airmen.*

2. Mark on a time line the events which at last made man's old dream of flight a reality.

3. Give a floor talk in which you explain clearly the three types of air transport. Can you illustrate your talk with chalk diagrams?

4. Why do men honor an inventor such as Professor Langley, who did not really succeed in flying?

[1] In 1850 it took three months to carry a letter the same distance; in 1869 the letter went by railroad in seven and a half days.

5. The original Wright planes are to be kept in a London museum rather than in an American one. Do you see why?

6. Study the map opposite page 552 of famous flights in which Americans took part. Which of them seem most likely to have added to scientific knowledge? Why?

7. In 1929 Lindbergh spent much time flying over the forests of Yucatan and other parts of Central America. Can you discover from magazine articles what he found? What new usefulness does this suggest for aviation?

8. After you have read about Lindbergh and his career, make a list of the points in his character and training which made it possible for one man to do so much.

UNIT III. HOW EDUCATION HELPED THE NATION TO SHARE ITS GOOD THINGS

All that the scientists discovered and all that the inventors made would have been of small account to the nation but for the quiet, constant work of educators. The educators, of whatever sort, all worked to one end: they made the people more intelligent, and thus more able to understand and enjoy the world they lived in. They made them *want* to use what scientists and inventors put before them. They created the desire to share in all the nation's good gifts.

1. The Education that comes from Books and Teachers

School Education. In school attendance the quarter-century 1900–1925 saw a great advance. The schools that already existed were made better, and new schools were established where there had been none before. Schools were opened in the mountains of Tennessee and Kentucky, for instance, and for Negroes in the country districts of the South. The number of boys and girls who had a high-school education increased greatly. People who had not gone to high

school themselves wanted their children to do so. Colleges and universities grew larger and larger to take care of the increased numbers who wanted a college education. The results of this increase in school attendance slowly began to show as the nation grew more intelligent in various ways. One way in which intelligence is judged is by the number of people who are literate; that is, who can read. The percentage of illiteracy in 1900 was 10.9; in 1910 it was 7.7; in 1920 it had fallen to 6 per cent. In a country such as the United States 6 per cent of illiterate people is too great a percentage, of course; but at least the amount is being reduced.

University Extension. In 1906 President Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin started a new movement for college education. He knew that thousands of people wanted to go to college, but did not have the money or the time. He worked out a plan by which anyone who was willing and able to study at home could have such an education. If they could not go to college, college would come to them. They might do the work by correspondence; or, if they could interest enough people to form a class, a teacher would be sent to them from the university. Many other city and state universities followed the "Wisconsin idea," because they felt that a university supported by taxes should share its culture with as many citizens as wanted it. In 1919 there were about one hundred and twenty thousand students, some of them old men and women, in university-extension classes. In 1930 the number had greatly increased. Besides this the universities sent out books, outlines of study, motion pictures, and interesting special lecturers and teachers. They tried to give back to the people good measure for the support which the people gave to them.

Education through Free Libraries. In 1833, at Peterboro, New Hampshire, the Reverend Abiel Abbott founded

the first free public library which still exists in the United States. In 1848 the people of Massachusetts passed a law for the founding of the famous Boston Public Library. Other states and cities followed, and by the time of the Civil War there were a number of public lending libraries. In 1895 the great public library of New York City was founded by uniting three great gifts of books from generous citizens. In small towns a public-spirited citizen often gave books to start the public library, and one or more women volunteered to act as librarian without pay. As time passed and libraries grew larger it became clear that people with special training were needed to take care of the books and manage their use. To answer this need the first library school was established at Columbia University in 1887; others followed, so that the profession of librarian took its place beside the other professions.

Toward the close of the century Mr. Andrew Carnegie began to give artistic and useful library buildings and books to any town that would promise to keep up the service to the public. Mr. Carnegie spent in all about $64,000,000 in this way, and founded about three thousand libraries in all parts of the country.[1]

Increased Use of Books. Besides the use of books in schools and libraries, people bought more books for their homes. In 1900 there were twenty-seven members of the national publishers' association; in 1929 there were eighty. That meant that the business of publishing books paid so well that more and more companies went into it. In 1900

[1] Chicago's public library, one of the greatest in the country, was founded in an interesting way. After the great fire of 1871 there was much sympathy in Europe, and especially in England, for the stricken city. Mr. Thomas Hughes, author of *Tom Brown's School-Days*, gathered up seven thousand books and sent them to Chicago as a gift from England to the city by the lake. The public library of St. Louis began as a school library founded by the superintendent, Ira Divoll, in 1860.

about 3600 new books were published; in 1929 there were 7614. Of these there were 434 children's books in 1900 and 1135 in 1929. The number of volumes put out in the latter year was 470,344,000, or between three and four new books for each citizen in the country. All this publishing and selling of books means that there are thousands of people reading books today whose fathers and grandfathers did not read them. It also means that people are reading more kinds of books. A few years ago people read the Bible, and after that mainly novels and stories. Today the Bible is still a very popular book; but in addition people read history, science, the lives of great men and women, travel, philosophy, and religion. Their interests are wider, their view of the world is truer, and their minds are more active, because books are plentiful and cheap.

At the same time the reading of newspapers and magazines increased. After 1900 a new type of newspaper, called the tabloid, appeared in the cities and was eagerly read. It was a small paper with little reading matter but a great many pictures, like a small child's book. People who could read a little but were not well enough educated to enjoy the standard newspapers liked the tabloids. The bad quality of many city newspapers and magazines was a great problem during this period; but the better newspapers improved in the way in which they brought important news, and especially foreign news, to their readers.

Health Education. Besides the work of schools, library, and press, other educators were abroad in the land. Doctors and nurses taught the public how to live in a more wholesome way. Social workers and visiting nurses in both city and country showed housewives how to keep their homes cleaner, how to care for their children, and how to buy and cook better food for their families. Medical boards could now carry out rules and laws for the prevention of disease; for

A Visiting Nurse at Work

The education carried on by visiting nurses is almost if not quite as important as the relief work they do. In this picture a visiting nurse is treating her patient's ear. As they go about in the homes of the people these especially trained women teach their patients how to take better care of themselves and their children. The district of a visiting nurse varies from a few blocks in a city to a whole county in the country

people had grown more intelligent about germs, cleanliness, and inoculation. Surveys were made of living conditions in the great cities and in the country, and in many cases it was found that light, air, and sanitary devices were lacking in great numbers of homes. Bills were introduced in the state legislatures to force those who owned such buildings to bring them up to a better standard. They must provide so much window space for each square yard of floor space in each room, for instance, and they must not rent rooms that had many layers of wall paper on the walls. The "housing laws" were passed, for people now knew that disease and death come from improper rooms and houses.

Defectives. One of the important changes in education, which had begun in the nineteenth century but was now carried forward in new and better ways, was the education of defectives. Defectives are those who have some handicap, and therefore need special training different from that of most people. They may be deaf, or blind, or crippled, or they may have some peculiarity in their brains which keeps them from thinking as other people do. After 1900 the schools all over the land began to have classes for such people, with teachers trained to understand and help them. Special schools also were established where this work could be better done. The use of Braille increased, and the art of lip-reading for the deaf was developed. After the World War there were so many crippled and shell-shocked men who must be helped that interest in the education of defectives grew. Scientists studied their needs and the methods of helping them. Great hospitals were built by the government and used for reëducating them, so that even with their handicaps they might still earn a living and be useful members of society. This problem is one of the most important now before the American people; only a beginning has been made in its solution.

Prison Reform. The feeling of sympathy for the unfortunate extended to prisoners. A man interested in the reform of criminals, Mr. Thomas Mott Osborne, arranged to spend a term in prison as if he had been a criminal, that he might discover how prisoners really felt and lived. The result was that in 1913 he started a system of self-government for prisoners in the prison at Auburn, New York. The plan worked so well that Mr. Osborne was later made warden of Sing Sing Prison, where he worked out his idea more fully. Other prison officers made experiments, and in a few places there was considerable improvement in conditions and in the lives of the prisoners. After the World

War, however, when a crime wave swept the country, there was less interest in the treatment of prisoners and more in the problem of decreasing crime. In 1929 a great many attempts to escape were made by prisoners, their excuse being that conditions of work, food, space, and treatment were so bad that they had to make a protest in this way. This called the attention of the public to the problem once more, and scientists again turned their attention to its solution.

Daniel Carter Beard

Long before there was a Scout Movement, "Dan Beard" was teaching boys how to camp, how to cook, how to climb mountains, how to understand trees and animals — in a word, how to live happily out of doors. He is the patron saint of the Scout Movement in America. In 1926 he was given the Roosevelt medal for distinguished service in boys' work

Good Scouts! One of the greatest educational movements of the new century was scouting. In 1908 Sir Robert Baden-Powell, an English army officer, founded the Boy Scouts. Almost at once the movement spread to America and to the whole world. Boys liked it so well that their sisters wanted something like it, and in 1910 Miss Agnes Baden-Powell founded an organization for them. In 1920 the Boy Scouts' first world jamboree met in London; since then the world meetings take place every four years. Over thirty nations have Scout organizations; more than two million boys form its membership. Through this organization boys have come to be recognized as the future leaders of their countries and have learned to know and respect the boys of other nations.

Boy Scouts making Fire by means of Flint and Steel

Girl Scouts

This picture was taken at Camp Andree, Briarcliff Manor, New York, in the summer of 1929. After 1900 archery became an increasingly popular sport

Most healthy boys like to camp; but before scouting came, many boys had no opportunity. Through this means boys are organized into companies under a capable Scout leader and learn the arts of life in the woods and fields. They learn how to support themselves and make themselves comfortable in the open, how to play fair in all kinds of sports, how to swim and save life in the water, and how to fight forest fires. They tramp to historic shrines; they plant trees; they make trails; they establish sanctuaries for game and birds. In the summer of 1927 over three hundred and fifty thousand Scouts had a week or more each in camp. Boys who are not near a Scout troop may still become Scouts, learning the arts and winning the degrees by correspondence. The president of the nation is honorary president of the Boy Scouts; Mrs. Coolidge and Mrs. Hoover have led the girls in the same way. Mr. Daniel Carter Beard, the dean of all Scouts now living in America, has been the leader of the movement in this country. Scouting has made it possible for thousands of boys and girls to learn woodcraft and to share the joys of outdoor life together. It is an important educational movement.

Review and Project

1. Make a list, on the blackboard, of all the things studied in this division which are a part of America's opportunity in education. Can you add any others?

2. How many movements studied so far in this division were affected by the World War? How was each affected? Which were helped?

3. Give a floor talk of five minutes on the Scout Movement in America, telling what a Scout is expected to be able to do.

4. What percentage of the new books published in 1900 was for children? What percentage in 1929? What does this show?

5. List the things taught to Americans by nurses and doctors which have improved the public health. How many of them are enforced by law in your state?

6. Has your public library any books in Braille? How does Braille differ from ordinary printing?

7. Compare the work done for defectives and criminals before the Civil War with that of the twentieth century. What is the difference?

8. A wonderful tale of courage and work is Booker T. Washington's *Up from Slavery*. Read it and report what you find there in a talk on "What One Man did for his People."

2. Education through Eye and Ear

Leland Stanford, the founder of Stanford University, was very fond of horses. He wanted to know just how they ran — what motions they made as they covered the ground. In order to find out he employed John D. Isaacs, a railway engineer, to set up a row of cameras with which to take a series of pictures of horses as they ran past. Eadweard Muybridge operated the cameras, so that they took pictures a fraction of a second apart. Every motion showed clearly when the pictures were seen in their proper order. This was in 1879.[1]

A few years later, in 1887, Edison began to work on the problem of motion pictures; but he was not able to get good results until in 1889 George Eastman of Rochester began to make the right film. On October 6, 1889, Edison

[1] A few years later these pictures were taken to Paris. It happened that just at this time the great painter Jean Louis Meissonier was engaged in a fierce quarrel with some members of the French Academy. These men said that Meissonier's pictures did not correctly represent the motions of running horses. Meissonier heard of the Stanford pictures and went to see them. They proved that he was right. In high triumph he and Muybridge showed to the Academicians the pictures in rapid succession on a screen. This was the first "movie" in history; but since Meissonier was interested in painting and not in motion pictures no development took place from the event.

showed moving pictures in his studio at West Orange, New Jersey. After that varieties of moving-picture machines appeared from time to time at expositions or vaudeville houses, and in 1896 a "vitascope" became a regular part of the evening's entertainment in a New York music hall. For about ten years, from 1895 to 1905, there were so many lawsuits over patents that not much progress could be made. But in November, 1905, the first real "movie" house was opened in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. It was called a nickelodeon, and for several years the regular charge for admission to a motion-picture house was only five cents.

The Popular Movies. People liked the moving pictures. They were a wonderful invention, they showed interesting things, and they were so cheap that everyone could afford them. From short scenes of rapid motion they developed into stories that provided an evening's entertainment. In 1907 David W. Griffith presented Lew Wallace's *Ben Hur* in sixteen scenes. In 1912 Sarah Bernhardt appeared as Queen Elizabeth, and the thousands of people in America who could not travel to the cities to see the great French actress could for a small fee see her acting in one of her greatest parts. In 1913 the motion-picture studios began to be located near Los Angeles, and thus began one of the greatest industries of California. In 1914 the appearance of *The Birth of a Nation*, which was a story of the time just after the Civil War, aroused much bitterness between white men and black. This showed the nation that another great force in education had arrived; that for good or bad the thinking of the people would be influenced by what they saw pictured before them in such vivid form.

Taking America to the World. Many people thought that the motion pictures should be controlled, especially as they sometimes showed scenes which were not considered good for public morals. Boards of censors were appointed;

and the men and women on the censoring boards usually kept the worst features from the motion plays which were shown in American theaters. The censors did not, however, have any control over the films which were made in America and taken to foreign countries. American films have for years been very popular abroad and have been exported to all parts of the world. Travelers come home to report that both good and bad American picture plays are being shown in Latin America and in Europe, Asia, Africa, and the isles of the farthest seas. Sometimes these pictures represent American life truthfully; sometimes they are such as to make Americans heartily ashamed of their country. Because they go everywhere, the American film gives to the people of the world their most vivid picture of American life and ideas. If that picture is a bad one, it hurts the nation in the eyes of all the world.[1]

Television. In 1926 a Scot, John L. Baird, after twenty-seven years of experimenting, gave to the world the first proof that a motion picture can be sent to distant places by telegraph. This enables people a thousand miles or more from the place where an event occurs to see it on a screen. At present only very simple scenes can be thus sent; in 1928, for instance, faces were seen across the Atlantic Ocean. Experiment in this field is very costly and difficult, and therefore television will probably be slow in coming into general use. When that day does arrive, there will be still another means by which people may share in whatever knowledge there is abroad in the world.

The Sharing of Beauty. There had always been beauty in America, and there had always been people who appreciated it and had it around them. Some, as we have seen,

[1] So popular were motion pictures both at home and abroad that by 1929 the business of making them had become one of the great industries in the country, with an investment of $1,750,000,000.

had stately homes with good pictures and furnishings. Those who lacked this good fortune learned to love the beauty of the mountains, prairies, and valleys in which they lived. They cherished carefully what little they had in their homes that was lovely.

But after 1900 the masses of the people grew more intelligent about what was beautiful and what was ugly. Women's magazines were largely responsible for this. They printed pictures of ugly things and beautiful things side by side, and pointed out why they differed and how they affected the people who lived with them. These magazines taught women how to make their homes simple, comfortable, and pleasing to the eye. As the years passed, people got rid of ugly furniture and pictures and put better things in their place. They cleaned up the back yard and made it into a garden. They built more beautiful homes. They planted trees on the streets and mowed the parkings. And so beauty, which had once been the possession of the few, brought a new grace into the lives of more and more people each year.

The Set-Back Skyscraper. There were now plenty of rich people in America who were able and willing to support artists, and when artists had real talent they were usually able to make a living, Sculpture, painting, and the fine arts of etching and engraving all had their careful and painstaking students, their worthy and acknowledged masters. But above all other arts in America the art of architecture rose to first place. There were fine Gothic churches, stately Georgian homes, splendid Renaissance libraries and schools. But besides all this reproduction of old styles American architects invented a new manner, or rather developed a new grace and magnificence in a very, very old one. The invention of steel-framed buildings had made skyscrapers possible in the great cities. The first skyscrapers were homely square-topped blocks, and the artists all said that the sky

The New York Sky Line before and after the Building of the Skyscraper

line of a city like New York, with all these square teeth cutting into the sky, was ugly. Then artists with more power of appreciation began to teach the world that that sky line was beautiful; and at the same time architects were working to make the face of the skyscraper beautiful too. But the health officers also had been learning their business, and began to object to the skyscrapers for cutting off the light and air from the street below, until they made a law that required every skyscraper to have its upper stories set back to let the light pass. In this law the architects found their chance: they began building skyscrapers which look somewhat like the pyramid temples of ancient Babylonia and Assyria, except that the use of steel has made it possible to have them far taller and more slender. Each building is a magnificent sight by itself, and the sky line is more beautiful than ever.

Radio. What the motion picture is to the eye, radio is to the ear. After Bell invented the telephone many scientists thought that instead of metal wires ether waves might be used for sending messages. The man who actually first succeeded in using the ether in this way was an Italian, Guglielmo Marconi. In 1901 Marconi sent in telegraph signals a very simple message from England to Newfoundland. Within a few years ships had adopted this means of keeping in touch with land or with other ships.[1] Railroads added radio devices to their regular telegraph service. About 1907 came the first use of radio to send spoken words. On land, however, radio was at first regarded rather as a curiosity than as a useful piece of equipment. A great storm in 1914 proved its usefulness. At that time wind and sleet destroyed the telegraph wires in the East; but the Lackawanna Railroad kept its service advised and running by means of its radio messages. After that all transportation adopted the radio.

About this time men and boys with a bent for science began to make or buy sending or receiving sets and to use them. The World War hurried this invention into more general use, as it did others. By 1920 there was radio communication in many countries. The amplifier was used at the Republican convention of 1920; and when Harding was elected five radio receiving sets had the news from a garage in Pittsburgh which housed a sending set. After that the use of radio in national affairs grew rapidly. On June 21, 1923, Harding made the first president's address which was broadcast to the people. He talked in St. Louis, and the subject was the World Court. On November 10, 1923, less than three months before he died, President Wilson gave

[1] In 1910 the United States Congress compelled all American ships carrying passengers to have wireless-telegraph equipment. In 1922 the nations agreed that any ship in trouble at sea should send out as a call of distress the letters SOS. Many lives have been saved by means of this signal.

his last message to the nation, expressing his regret that the United States had not become a member of the League of Nations. Coolidge's was the first inauguration nationally broadcast (March 4, 1925). These examples show what a power the radio is in binding America together by common knowledge and participation in national events. By 1929 there were nine million radio sets in American homes. Any important event could be heard not only all over the homeland but in Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico as well. Christmas chimes from New York City ushered in the holiday for people on the plains of Texas or the mountain fastnesses of Utah. Without moving from his chair a man might hear a church service in Chicago, listen to a lecture in Los Angeles, and enjoy an orchestra in Boston. The radio brought a sharing of national life that helps to overcome the great size of our country and the differing ideas of its people.

Governmental Control. In the meantime all the thousands of people who had something to say were saying it over the radio. The number of broadcasting stations grew so fast that they were in one another's way and caused great confusion. By 1930 there were about seven hundred stations, perhaps twice as many as there should have been. A great problem arose: Who shall decide who has a right to use "the air," and what shall he be allowed to say or sing or play? And as usual it seemed best that the government, to which people turn when something has to be controlled, should manage radio. As early as 1912 a law had been made which said that the Department of Commerce should control wireless telegraphy. It was no easy task. In April, 1927, a Federal Radio Commission was appointed to study radio problems and to recommend the best ways of managing this new science and art.

Radio in Schools. By 1925 the day and most of the night were filled with a continuous program of music, speeches,

lectures, business information, weather reports, and news from the radio broadcasting stations. Some of this avalanche of sound was trashy and cheap. But perhaps the greater part of it was interesting, useful, or beautiful. At all events people could tune in on what they wished and choose to have the desirable things. As time passed, better artists sang or played for the radio audience. The intelligent listener heard the best voices of the opera and concert stage, the freshest scientific news, and the most sensible advice from experts on farming, housekeeping, and business.

Educators asked Why not use the radio in schools? Why not give to school children the very best that the country affords? Dr. Walter Damrosch, a famous music conductor in New York who was interested in making all Americans love good music, gave a series of music lessons to school children in this way. During the summer of 1929 the Secretary of the Interior, Ray Lyman Wilbur, called a conference to consider the subject of school radio lessons. It is too early to say what the result of this conference will be; but it is certain that the radio is going to be an agent for bringing to any remote mountain district school a thousand miles from the centers of culture the best talent of the nation. The radio will bring a share of whatever is best in education to any citizen or school that has a receiving set.

Review and Project

1. Think back over man's history as far as you can, and list in their order all the previous inventions that had to come before motion pictures and radio could be invented. How far apart in time were the first inventions in this list? How far apart are the later ones? What does this show?

2. What part had Bell in the invention of the radio? What part had Daguerre in the invention of the motion picture? Can either of these inventions help make human life safer?

3. In the footnote on page 565 a reason is given for the fact that Meissonier's use of motion pictures did not bring this invention to popular notice. Can you think of other reasons?

4. How many examples of the control of people by their governments have been due to new inventions since 1900?

5. Make, on the blackboard, a list of useful or interesting things that the class members have lately learned either from motion pictures or from the radio. Do you see why these inventions have been discussed under the head of education?

UNIT IV. HOW STATESMEN AND PEOPLE MADE A MORE DEMOCRATIC NATION

1. The Strenuous Days of Roosevelt

When Theodore Roosevelt became president in 1901 after the death of President McKinley, he found great discontent among the people and urgent problems of state. He faced these things courageously; he had a program, or rather a whole set of programs, for half a dozen big questions. Some of the people disagreed with him heartily and fought him hard. He struck back, and therefore his administrations were stormy ones. But even those who fought him hardest knew that he was fighting for what he thought were the rights of the people.

The Great Corporations. The great corporations that were formed after 1865 combined into still larger ones after 1885. They employed men by tens of thousands and even by hundreds of thousands; they owned hundreds of square miles of land, scores of factories, and hundreds of miles of railroad track.

The same thing was noticed in the railroad business and in the banking business. Large railroad systems were grouped into still larger ones; large banks took over the care of money belonging to the great corporations and railroads.

Many people became alarmed. They were afraid that the big corporations were getting too strong — so strong that they could say just how much everybody should pay for the goods that the corporations made, just what wages everybody should receive, and even who should go to Congress and who should be president of the United States. People were asking what should be done about the corporations. Should they be compelled to break apart? Should new combinations be prevented? Should they be allowed to charge any price that they chose for their goods? Or should they be compelled to share their great power with the people?

President Roosevelt

It was Theodore Roosevelt who brought the word "strenuous" into common use in America. His life is a definition for the word. A frail little boy, he made himself a strong and healthy man by careful living and hard discipline of the body. Before becoming president he was head of the Civil Service Commission under President Harrison, a reformer in New York politics, and the leader of the Rough Riders in the Spanish-American War. He wrote many books, but the one that boys and girls love most is his *Letters to his Children*, illustrated by the pen-and-ink sketches that Roosevelt himself made

Corporations and the Coal Strike. In the summer of 1902 President Roosevelt went on a speech-making tour through the North and Northeast. He told the people that the corporations were doing many wrong things that ought to be stopped.

Just at this time the Pennsylvania coal-miners struck — about one hundred and forty-seven thousand of them. The cold weather came; still no settlement of the strike was

made. There was little coal for stoves and furnaces in the North. Prices for coal went higher and higher. People were beginning to suffer, and then to be frightened, when President Roosevelt asked the miners and the mine-owners to turn the dispute over to a committee to investigate and arbitrate. The strikers agreed; the mine-owners refused. The people became stirred up against the mine-owners. Finally the owners gave way to the President, and a committee was appointed which decided that the miners were partly right and partly wrong, but that they deserved higher wages.

The coal strike was important because it showed that a labor dispute might affect a large section of the country, it showed the people that a few corporations had the power to stop the supply of such a necessity as coal, and it increased President Roosevelt's popularity and helped him to accomplish the next thing that he had in mind.

Roosevelt and the Corporations. The President knew that the railroads were guilty of an unfair practice known as "rebating." In other words, the railway companies charged the same rate to all people who shipped freight on their roads, but they returned part of the money as a "rebate" to a few favorite shippers. People who did not get rebates naturally complained. The President asked Congress to pass a law forbidding rebates; then he strictly enforced the law, and rebating largely stopped.

During the same year (1903) Congress passed a law putting $500,000 into the hands of the President. The money was to be used to compel corporations to obey the Sherman Anti-Trust Act and to force the railroads to obey the Interstate Commerce Act.

President Roosevelt was in the midst of these activities when the election of 1904 occurred. The Democratic candidate was Judge Alton B. Parker. Roosevelt's popularity was so great that his victory was overwhelming. Many of

the Western states had voted earlier for Bryan, partly because they thought he would make the railroads and corporations obey the laws. Now that Roosevelt was doing what they wished, many of them voted for him.

With the support of the people behind him, Roosevelt and his helpers went on with the fight against the great corporations. In 1906 a law was passed which gave the Interstate Commerce Commission power to cut down railroad rates if these were unfairly high. In 1907 the corporations were forbidden to give money to any party in a national election lest they demand favors of the party in return. In the Supreme Court the American Sugar Refining Company, which had cheated the government of great sums of money in duties, was made to repay over $4,000,000 and its officers were publicly disgraced.

Roosevelt and Conservation. Roosevelt also took a great interest in conservation, which is the policy of using natural resources in an economical way. Cleveland had made a beginning in this work, and Roosevelt now continued it and made it more popular with the people. He set aside great forests in the West, which would insure a timber supply to future generations. The trees also held moisture in the ground and so helped to prevent floods. Gifford Pinchot, Chief Forester, and F. H. Newell of the Geological Survey advised Mr. Roosevelt in the work of organizing a Bureau of Forestry. Before his term of office closed, Roosevelt had added about one hundred and fifty million acres to the nation's forest reserve — great tracts of forest land that are being kept and cared for to serve future needs. Besides the forest reserves, Roosevelt had about sixty-four million acres of land set aside which contained oil, coal, and other valuable minerals.

Irrigation. We have seen (p. 384) that the states began the work of saving and distributing water so as to make desert country into productive farms. Under Roosevelt a

Forest Reservations in the West

National Reclamation Service was established, which created a fund of money to be used in building great dams in the mountains, from which streams of water ran to the desert land. The large ditches divided into smaller ones, which the farmer could control so as to give his crop as much water as it needed and no more. The farmers paid for their water in installments, and as this money came in it was used for new dams for other dry areas. Swampy land was drained.

Waterways. Since the coming of the railroads Americans had largely ceased to use the canals, rivers, and lakes for

The Great Falls of the Yellowstone River, in Yellowstone National Park

transportation. Roosevelt knew that travel by water is cheaper than travel by land, and in 1907 he appointed an Inland Waterways Commission to find out whether water could not again be used for cheaper transportation. The commission said that public money ought to be spent in putting rivers, canals, lakes, and ports into good shape for ships to use. A program was made for carrying out this idea, and work was started; and water transportation has gradually increased since 1912.

National Parks. Not only timber and minerals and water power were saved, but the still greater treasures of health and beauty. The first national park was opened in 1832 at Hot Springs, Arkansas. Yellowstone Park was opened in 1872. Between 1890 and 1927 eighteen new national parks and

thirty-two national monuments were in rapid succession set aside "for the benefit and enjoyment of the people." These places had rare natural beauty, contained curious and wonderful freaks of nature of value to scientists, or had unusual historical interest; or perhaps they had all three. Every year thousands of citizens go to these parks to live for a time in the open air; to see the animals that, being protected, are learning to return man's friendship in kind; and to be rested and refreshed by the beauty of the parks. Perhaps this is the part of the great conservation program that has brought the most pleasure to the nation.

The conservation movement was not Roosevelt's work alone. In a conference held in 1908 the President asked the governors of the states to help him, and they responded cordially. They appointed state conservation commissions, and these worked with the national officers. In addition, Roosevelt presented the conservation idea to the people, and the people saw it was for their children's sake that the nation's wealth was being saved.

More Efficient Local Government. In Roosevelt's time people all over the land were thinking how they could put into the hands of all the citizens the power that had been in the hands of a few. In Galveston, Texas, a new and better kind of city government — one that made a few commissioners responsible to the people — was adopted. This gave the people more actual control than they had had before. Within a few years many cities had adopted the commission type of local government. Other cities, following the plan of Sumter, South Carolina, and Staunton, Virginia, used the city-manager plan. By this plan a single highly trained man is employed to run the city as he would run a big business corporation. By either plan the people vote on a "short ballot" for from one to five men, who can be held strictly to account. This plan was first used in 1908; after twenty years of trial

it had been adopted by three hundred and seventy-five towns and cities and found to be more economical and honest than any previous plan for municipal (that is, city) government.

New Political Questions. There were, moreover, several new questions with regard to how much power the voters ought to have and who should be allowed to vote. For example, there were the initiative and the referendum, adopted in South Dakota in 1898 and in many Western states soon afterwards. Under the initiative plan a group of citizens may draw up a proposed law. If they can persuade a certain number of other voters to join them, they can have their proposal voted on by the entire state. If the proposal is accepted, it becomes a law just as if the state legislature had passed it. Under the referendum plan, if a certain number of voters do not like a law passed by the state legislature, they can protest; then the voters of the entire state decide whether to keep the law or reject it. The initiative and the referendum gave the people much more power than they had had before.

Somewhat the same idea was seen in the demand for the *popular election of United States senators*. Senators had always been chosen by the state legislatures. Many people thought that they should be elected by the voters themselves. An amendment to the Constitution was therefore drawn up providing for popular election of national senators. It was accepted by the states as the Seventeenth Amendment and was proclaimed in 1913.

William Howard Taft and the Split in the Republican Party. Roosevelt was followed in the presidency by his Secretary of War, William H. Taft.[1] President Taft was a Republican and a close friend of Roosevelt's.

[1] In the campaign both parties declared against the use of "injunctions" in labor disputes. These were orders from judges forbidding laborers to use certain methods in their efforts to win better conditions or wages. If they disobeyed, the judges punished them without a trial by jury.

During President Taft's time the movements which have just been described were all going forward. Conservation was carried on. The states were actively making reforms in their factory laws. In 1910 postal savings banks were established. In 1913 an amendment was added to the Constitution — the Sixteenth — which allowed Congress to tax people according to the size of their incomes. Before that time most of the government revenue had come from tariff duties.

The tariff was revised upward while Taft was president, and a new railroad law practically prevented the railway companies from changing the rates which they charged unless the government agreed to the change.

It was too much to expect that so many new problems could be solved without differences of opinion. These differences began to appear while President Taft was in office. Some people wished to adopt the new ideas rather slowly; others wished to push them forward more quickly. Some believed that the new tariff law was an excellent one; others thought that it did not carry out the promises of the party at all. They said that too many of its provisions had been put in by selfish corporations who were looking out for their own profits and did not care in the least for the public good. Still other people were divided on the subject of conservation. Taft's friends said that he was much interested in taking care of the public resources; his enemies claimed that he had shut his eyes and allowed the big corporations to seize a great deal of the best timber and mineral lands. Hence, when the election of 1912 came round, three parties appeared. The regular Republicans renominated Taft. They were the men who wished to go slowly with the progressive ideas, who liked the new tariff, and who liked the President's ideas on conservation. The Progressive party nominated Roosevelt. This party was made of the men who

wished to go faster, who thought the new tariff was wrong, and who believed that Taft was letting the public lands get away from the government. The Democrats nominated and elected Woodrow Wilson, governor of New Jersey.

Review, Project, Enrichment

1. After 1903 many states adopted the "direct primary," in which the members of each party select the candidates for whom they later vote. These candidates had formerly been chosen in party conventions. Which method is the more democratic? Which does your state use?

2. In those days there was a great deal of talk about the high cost of living. What did this have to do with corporations and tariffs? Does it exist today?

3. Account for the split in the Republican party in 1912.

4. Some states allow the people to "recall," or take from office, any elected official who has failed to do his duty. What effect does this have on the officials?

5. In 1913 the Department of Labor was separated from that of Commerce and its head put into the Cabinet. What does this show about changing ideas in the United States?

6. Read James Morgan's treatment of Roosevelt and Taft in *Our Presidents*, pp. 251–270.

2. The Leadership of Woodrow Wilson

President Wilson's term began on March 4, 1913. Like Cleveland and Roosevelt, Wilson believed that the president should be the leader of the country, and he proceeded to put his belief into effect. The Democratic party had promised many reforms if its candidate should be elected; so there was much to be done.

Talking instead of Writing to Congress. When Washington had any advice to give to Congress he went before that body and said what he had to say in a speech. From

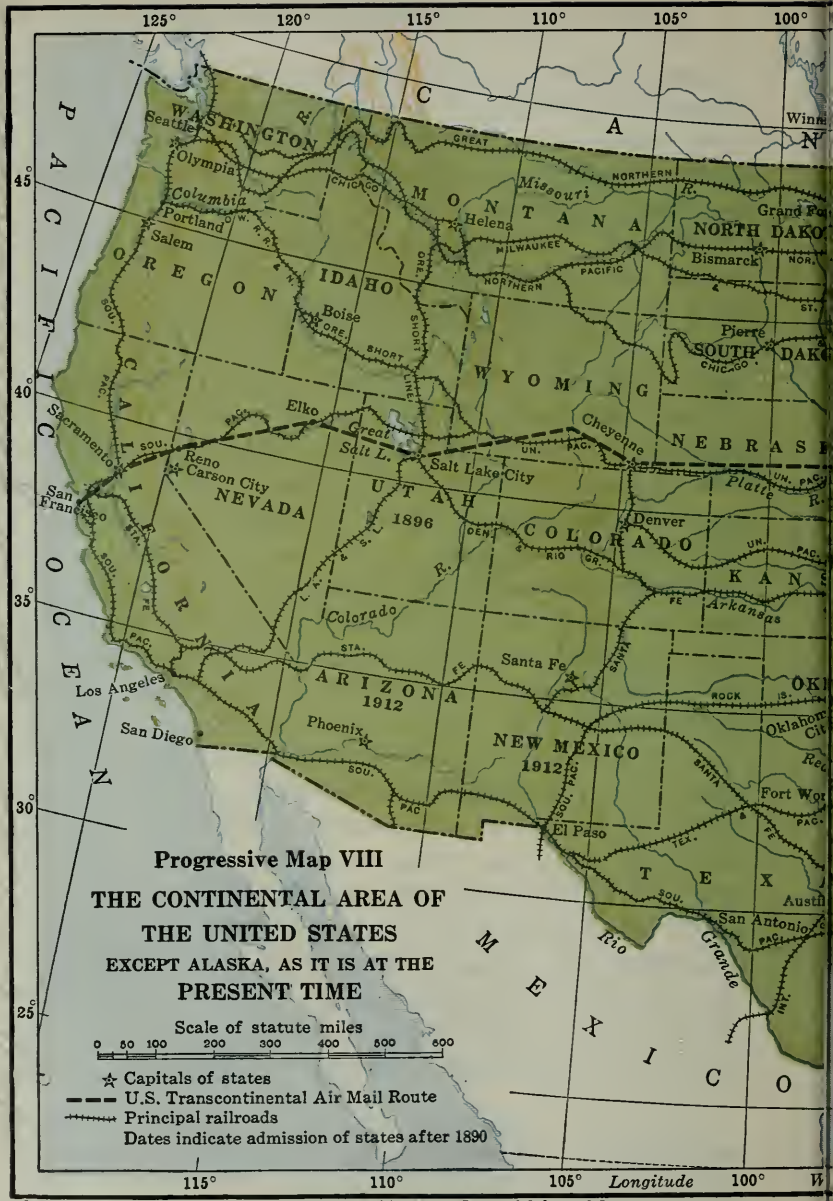
Jefferson's time to Taft's, however, the president wrote his message to Congress. President Wilson thought he would have better results by talking than by writing, and so he revived Washington's custom. Later presidents have done one way or the other, as seemed best to them.

Economic Changes and Reforms. The first important change that the Democrats made was one that lowered the tariff. This law also took advantage of the Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution and laid a tax on incomes. Within a few years the income tax gave the government a larger revenue than the tariff had ever given. Under this system, which was started in 1913, people with larger incomes paid larger taxes, and people with smaller incomes paid smaller taxes. People with very small incomes were not required to pay any tax whatever.[1]

President Wilson and his Congress also took up the money question, which had been so much discussed in the nineties. As a result the Federal Reserve Act of 1913 was passed. This law is rather hard to understand, but the most important part is this:

There are certain times in the year when a great deal more money is needed than at other times. Christmas, for example, is a time when much money is needed, because more people are buying and selling things than at any other time. After Christmas is over, less money is needed. Another busy season is the autumn, when crops all over the country are being harvested. At that time a great deal of money is being paid to hired laborers, and the immense harvest everywhere has to be carried to barns and warehouses and shipped in trucks and freight cars to the cities and the flour mills and

[1] Even the *rate* charged on the larger incomes was higher than that on smaller incomes; for example, incomes of over $3000 were taxed at the rate of 1 per cent, incomes over $20,000 at 2 per cent, and so on until incomes over $500,000 were taxed at the rate of 6 per cent.



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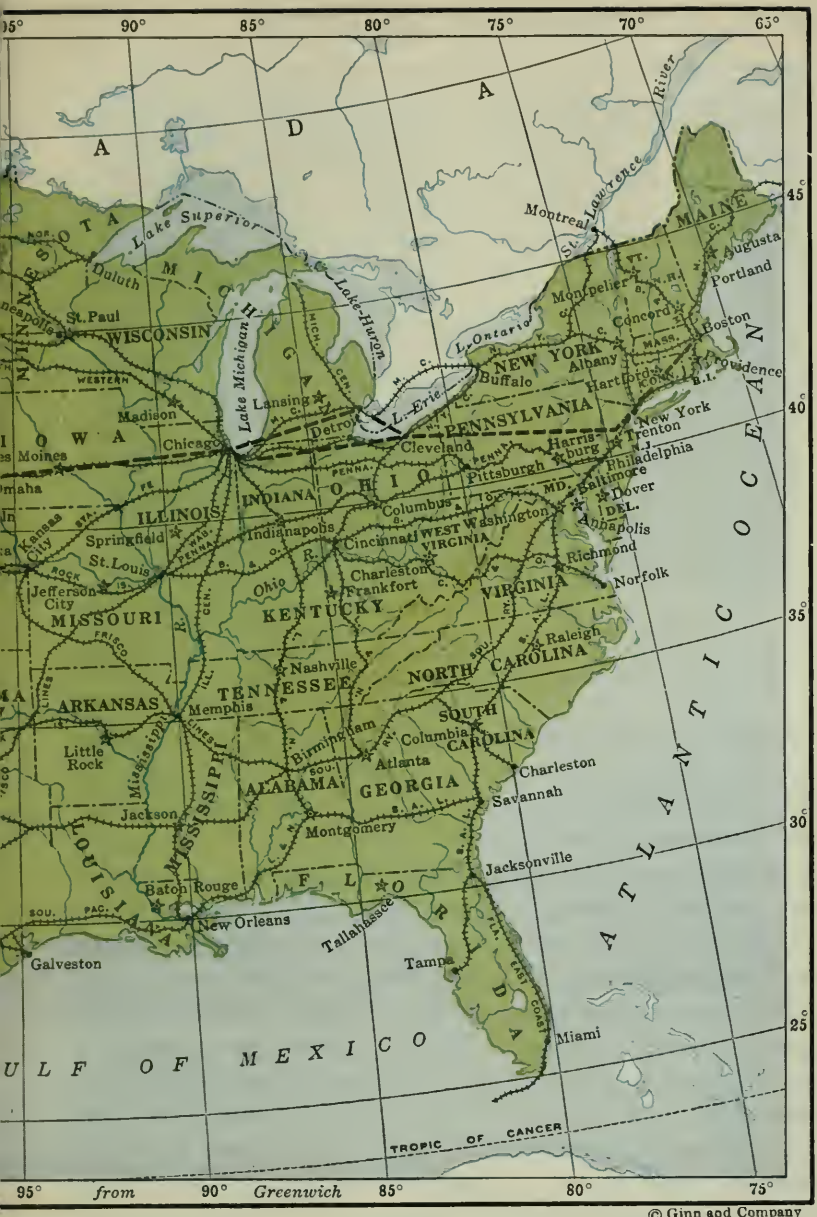

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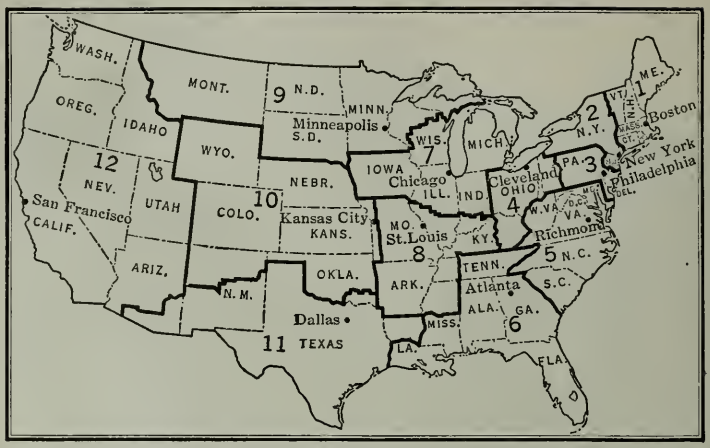


Federal Reserve Districts

The United States is such a huge country that it was necessary to divide it into sections for the working of the Federal Reserve System. Each section includes a part of the country where the crops and other products are much the same, and which therefore has about the same activities at any one season of the year. The central, or "regional," banks are located at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Richmond, Atlanta, Chicago, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Kansas City, Dallas, and San Francisco

other places where the demand is great. All these things require a great deal of money. How could a system be set up by which plenty of pieces of money could be put into circulation when they were needed, and taken out of circulation when they were not needed? The Federal Reserve system answered the question.

It provided that there should be twelve banks in various parts of the country, all controlled by a government committee called the Federal Reserve Board. The banks are known as Federal Reserve Banks. When more money is needed in the states served by a Federal Reserve Bank, the bank puts paper money into circulation. When the need ends, the bank takes the money back. If you look at several pieces of paper money, you will almost always find that at least one is a Federal Reserve note.

William H. Taft Woodrow Wilson

William H. Taft was born in Ohio in 1857. Before being president he had been a lawyer, a judge, and governor of the Philippine Islands, as well as Secretary of War. After leaving the presidency he realized a lifelong ambition in becoming Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He is the only man in the history of the nation who has held both of the two highest offices in the country. Woodrow Wilson was born in Virginia in 1856 and died in Washington in 1924. Before becoming president he had been a writer of books on history and government, a professor at Princeton University, its president, and, finally, governor of New Jersey

President Wilson and Congress passed the Clayton anti-trust law and established a Federal Trade Commission, which sees that anti-trust laws are carried out and tries to prevent corporations from doing unfair things. They passed a seamen's act which forced all ship captains who came to American ports to give their men comfortable quarters and good treatment and to pay wages promptly. They passed the Jones Act (see page 472), which promised the Philippines their independence at some future time. They gave the people cheap package transportation by passing a parcel-post law, greatly reducing the rate of postage on the larger

packages. Within two years forty-one million packages were being carried every year.[1]

These laws were passed more quickly and easily than generally happens in politics. President Wilson had other improvements on his program, but before they could be put into effect the trouble with Mexico and the World War came. These great problems turned the minds of President and Congress from the work of peaceful improvement to the necessity of war. The story of the war has already been told, in Division Six, since it is a part of our foreign affairs.

3. The New World of After-the-War

When the soldiers who had been in France returned to their own homes, they found that many changes had come to America since they had left. Like the other nations which had taken part in the World War, the United States had to pass through a reconstruction period. It was not so hard for the United States as it was for the European countries; and yet even in the United States the war stopped some movements, hurried others forward, and sidetracked still others.

Demobilization. When the war came to an end, the United States was sending soldiers across to France as rapidly as possible, so that 2,000,000 were already over there. All these men had to be brought home. There were 2,250,000 other soldiers and sailors who were not in France. These also had to be sent to their homes. All of them had to go back to their regular duties. Many of them could not immediately find new places; hence there was a great deal of unemployment, and many families suffered severely.

Still more important was the problem of the men who were sick or had been wounded in the war. Every effort

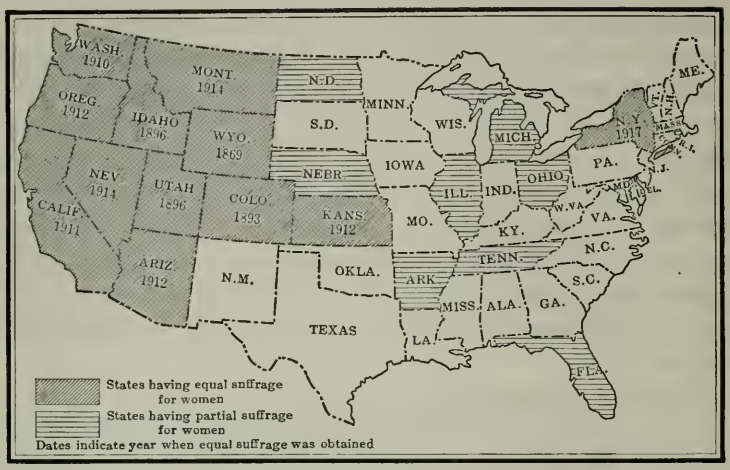
[1] In 1896 free delivery to rural districts was started. It was so successful that in twenty years it was serving over 29,000,000 people.

was made to cure the sick and heal the wounded. In cases where men were crippled by injuries, they were taught trades in government schools so that they might be able to earn their living after their course of training. Nineteen of the states gave cash "bonuses" to all their citizens who went into the army or navy. These payments averaged several hundred dollars and even ran as high as $600 per soldier. In 1924 the United States Congress also passed a bonus law. The total cost of this cannot be exactly told, but it is estimated at from two and a half to three billion dollars.

Another important thing that had to be done soon after the war ceased was to return the railroads to their owners. During the war the government had controlled the railroads of the entire country. On March 1, 1920, this was all changed by an act of Congress. The railroads were put back into the hands of the companies that owned them, and the transportation of troops and war materials stopped.

Amending the Constitution. After the World War the Constitution was amended in important ways. Two new amendments went into effect in 1920: one was about intoxicating liquor; the other, about woman suffrage.

We have seen that the temperance movement, and after that the prohibition movement, had existed in American life for many years. Many states had passed laws to control or forbid the making and selling of liquors that contained alcohol. The World War greatly helped the prohibition movement. In the first place, it seemed dangerous to allow armed men to drink liquors. In the second place, farmers (and others) brought forward this objection: Why should they make great efforts to raise more grain, and why should they and their children eat less of it, when enormous amounts were being used every year to make intoxicating liquors? It was estimated that seven billion pounds of food materials



Status of Woman Suffrage in 1917

were used every year to make beer, whisky, and other intoxicating drinks. All this resulted in a proposed amendment to forbid the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors. The amendment was submitted to the states and ratified by forty-six out of the forty-eight. It went into effect on January 16, 1920. A law passed the following October and known as the Volstead Act gave directions for carrying out the new part of the Constitution.

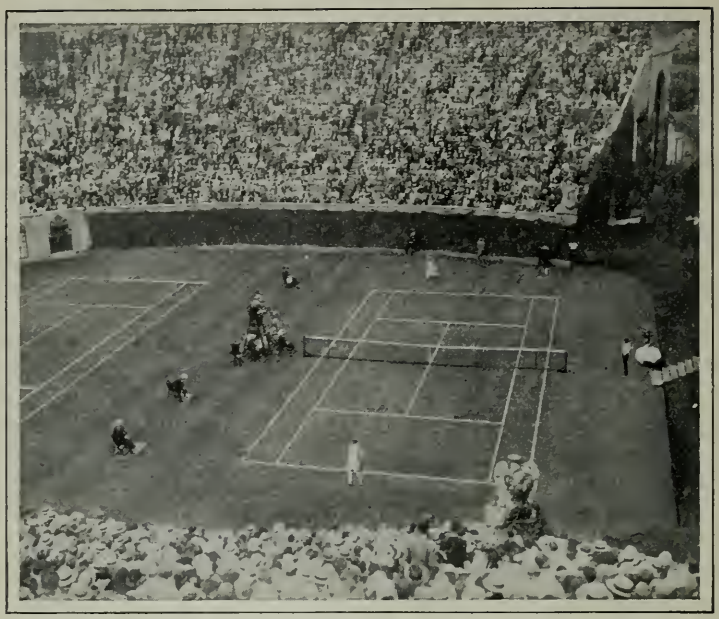
Woman Suffrage. The other amendment to the Constitution gave the vote to women. Like the prohibition movement, this movement dated back many decades (see page 426). Since the first woman's-rights convention in Seneca Falls in 1848, more and more people had come to feel that women should have as much influence in the affairs of government as men. In 1869 Wyoming had given its women the vote, and by 1917 eleven other states had done the same. By 1919 the cause had gained so many friends that its leaders were able to persuade Congress to adopt an

amendment giving the right to vote to women throughout the nation. In a little over a year enough states agreed to the amendment, so that it went into effect on August 26, 1920.

Close of the Wilson Administration. During the war and after its close President Wilson was overburdened with work and anxiety. His heart was very much in the plan of the League of Nations, and he wanted his own country to become one of its members. When the question was to be decided by the Senate (which had to ratify the Treaty of Versailles before this could happen), Wilson made a trip into the West to try to persuade the people there to support the League. This trip was too much for his failing health, and it resulted in a serious illness, which endured for the rest of his term. The term closed in sadness and national division, very different from the unity with which the nation had gone into the war and helped to win it. Part of the people supported the President in these days of his illness and defeat; many others thought that the Senate had done wisely in keeping the United States isolated from the League.

Harding's Administration. In 1920 Warren G. Harding of Ohio was nominated for president by the Republicans, with Calvin Coolidge of Massachusetts for vice president. The Democrats also nominated an Ohio man, Governor James M. Cox, and with him Franklin D. Roosevelt of New York, a cousin of former President Roosevelt. The Republicans won the election by a large majority. Harding chose Charles Evans Hughes for his Secretary of State, Andrew D. Mellon for Secretary of the Treasury, and Herbert Hoover for Secretary of Commerce.

No peace had yet been made with the enemy countries when President Harding came into office. In July, 1921, Congress passed resolutions which said that the war was over, and separate treaties were later made with Germany and Austria. These treaties pointed out the particular parts



An International Tennis Match

After 1900 Americans became more than ever interested in sports and games. They sent athletes to compete in the revived Olympian games, and held races and tournaments with other countries. This picture shows Miss Helen Wills of California playing against Miss Betty Nuthall of England at Forest Hills, Long Island, in 1929. Miss Wills regained the women's title in this match; she had held it for three years and lost it for a year because of illness

of the Treaty of Versailles (or the Treaty of Paris, as it is often called) to which the United States would agree. American troops stayed in Coblenz on the Rhine until January, 1923, when the last of them returned home.

The Peace Conference. People felt very strongly that the government should do something to prevent future wars. Being urged by Senator Borah of Idaho and others, President Harding therefore called a conference to discuss the limiting of navies. The nations invited to the conference were the five great powers (Great Britain, France, Japan, Italy, and

the United States) and also the Netherlands, Belgium, Portugal, and China. The conference met at Washington on November 11, 1921, and was presided over by Secretary Charles E. Hughes. Its sessions were not secret, as those of past international conferences had been.

The conference resulted in a number of treaties which brought the nations somewhat nearer to an agreement on navies. It also gave to China a promise that the powers would protect her independence and see that all nations had equal trading rights there. Even if the conference did not really reduce armaments very much, it was a step in that direction; and it showed the world that although the United States did not belong to the League of Nations, it wanted to help bring about peace.

The United States and the League of Nations. The League of Nations had been organized in January, 1920, and it at once began to deal with several great international questions. Some of those questions concerned health, such as the anthrax epidemic and the opium trade; some concerned money, which often had to come from America; and some concerned communication, such as rules for radio. In all such questions the United States was deeply interested, and yet it was outside the League. Secretary Hughes solved the problem for the moment by sending "observers," who could not vote but who could tell the League how our government felt about things. Sometimes these observers, who had no official position in the League at all, had a great deal of influence.

The World Court. We have seen that in 1872 the Geneva Award settled a difficult question between Great Britain and the United States by arbitration. Arbitration was used after that in many cases, some of which we have noted (see pages 455–456). In 1899 a great international peace meeting at the Hague set up a Permanent Court of Arbitration.

Although it was permanent, this court sat only when nations brought their differences to it. The United States asked the court to judge four cases which it had with other countries between 1902 and 1913.

The leaders of the League of Nations thought it best to have a court that would hold regular sessions, or "terms," like a county or national court. Early in 1922, therefore, they organized the Permanent Court of International Justice, which people usually call the World Court. The American statesman Elihu Root helped to plan and organize it. President Harding, and after him President Coolidge, wanted the United States to join this World Court, but the Senate would not give its consent. However, two very learned American judges — John Bassett Moore and Charles Evans Hughes — have sat upon its bench at The Hague.

During the years after the war the European nations keenly disliked the United States and heaped reproaches upon it because it would not cancel their war debts to us. Although the Americans refused to cancel the entire amount of the debts, they did cancel a large part of them, and the remainder was arranged to be paid over a long term of years. In 1924 the Dawes plan, which was adopted in Europe, helped Germany to secure a good money system, and contained a scheme for raising and paying the great German debt. This plan was made by an American commission led by Charles G. Dawes, who later became vice president and ambassador to England. The Dawes plan gave way in 1929 to the Young plan. The Young plan made further arrangements for paying the debts and provided that the last of the Allied troops, which had been in Germany since the war, should go home. It went much further than the Dawes plan, however, in planning for a world bank.

Another important question that arose during and after the war was about the cost of running the government.

Elihu Root **James T. Shotwell**

These two men were leaders of the peace movement: Elihu Root, the son of a professor in Hamilton College, served his country as Secretary of War, Secretary of State, senator from New York, and American member of the first Hague Tribunal. He has been for many years the acknowledged leader of the peace movement in the United States, and for this service was granted the Nobel peace prize in 1912. He drafted many treaties which made nations more friendly to one another. In 1929 he worked out a plan for the United States to enter the World Court. James T. Shotwell is a professor of modern history in Columbia University between international tasks. He has written part or all of a number of books on history and international affairs and has served on many boards and commissions. Without doubt his greatest service has been his planning of the steps by which the Pact of Paris became a working fact in the world. (Photograph by J. Brenner, New York)

During the war the cost was, of course, very great. After peace was declared, both President Harding and President Coolidge made great efforts to economize. Every possible saving was made, unnecessary employees were dropped, and government expenses were decreased wherever practicable. By a law of 1921 called the Budget Act the President has estimates made out each year of the probable income and expense of each department of the government. Under his direction the estimate of expense is put as low as possible,

and then he attempts to keep Congress and all government officers down to this level of cost. Partly as a result of this work, taxes were greatly lowered by 1925, and five billion dollars of the public debt had been paid.

4. Coolidge and Hoover

President Harding died in California on August 2, 1923, on his return from a trip to Alaska. His successor, Calvin Coolidge, carried on his policies and kept his cabinet. The people liked Coolidge so well that they reëlected him in 1924 over John W. Davis, the Democratic nominee.[1] Although Mr. Coolidge was a man of high character, and no one ever thought him guilty of the slightest dishonesty, his administrations were shadowed by two very unfortunate scandals.

Dishonesty in the Veterans' Bureau. The Veterans' Bureau, established to care for needy soldiers who had been wounded or made ill by the war, began its work in 1921. It did much good in helping the men who had served in the army; but there was complaint that it was badly managed and that some of its employees were not efficient. There were rumors that while some of the needy soldiers waited in vain for help, the bureau employees were wasting time and money. Since the government gave the bureau about $455,000,000 a year to spend for the soldiers and their families, people felt that they should have good care without delay. Finally the Senate appointed a committee to investigate the bureau. The result of this investigation was that Colonel C. R. Forbes, the director, and a contractor named Thompson, were accused of a conspiracy to defraud the government.

[1] This was the first campaign in which the conventions and the speeches of the candidates were broadcast by wireless. The use of the wireless, or the radio, as it is usually called in America, brought political life from its centers to the ears of millions of listening citizens. Perhaps never before had any invention given to the people so great a share in political events.

They were brought to trial in the national courts, were found guilty, and were condemned to prison. The bureau was put under different management and went on with its work of helping the disabled soldiers.

Teapot Dome. Petroleum, from which kerosene, gasoline, and fuel oil are obtained, was now growing to be one of the world's most valuable treasures. The people wanted it for their motor cars, which had come to seem necessary for their happiness. Navies and shipping companies wanted it for fuel. Oil-burning furnaces were beginning to take the place of the older coal furnaces in American homes. All over the world there was rivalry in gaining control of the lands that were known to contain petroleum.

In 1909 and 1910 Roosevelt and Taft and in 1915 President Wilson set aside large areas of oil lands as naval reserves. Private oil companies were not allowed to take petroleum from them; for the government wanted to be sure to have plenty of fuel for battleships and airplanes in time of need. The Secretary of the Navy was given control of these oil reserves. In 1921 President Harding transferred oil and gas lands from the control of the Department of the Navy to the control of the Department of the Interior. Albert B. Fall was then Secretary of the Interior. In 1922 Fall, without asking for bids, as was usual in such cases, secretly leased two of the reserves to private oil companies. The two government fields thus given up to private use were Teapot Dome in Wyoming and Elk Hills in California. One of the companies made a bargain to furnish a naval station in Hawaii with fuel oil and to take its pay in crude oil, which it would take from the reserve.

After Harding's death it was discovered that these leases had been given. It was also discovered that one of the men who had headed a company which leased this government land had "lent" Mr. Fall a large sum of money which, so it

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Secretary of Labor Davis **Secretary of the Treasury Mellon**

Labor and capital are represented in the cabinet by these two men: the one a former iron-puddler who has not forgotten the conditions of a laboring man's life; the other a capitalist multimillionaire. Both were in the Harding and Coolidge cabinets and stayed on with Mr. Hoover. James J. Davis was born in Wales, but came to America when he was a boy. He left school at eleven years of age to go to work in Pittsburgh. After years of hard work he was called to various positions of leadership, and finally to the cabinet in 1921. He has told the story of his life in *The Iron Puddler: my Life in the Rolling Mills, and What Came of It.* Andrew W. Mellon is also from Pittsburgh, where he was graduated from the university in 1873. He had a long and successful experience in business before entering the cabinet in 1921. Since then he has dealt in international money affairs, as well as the financial management of the United States government

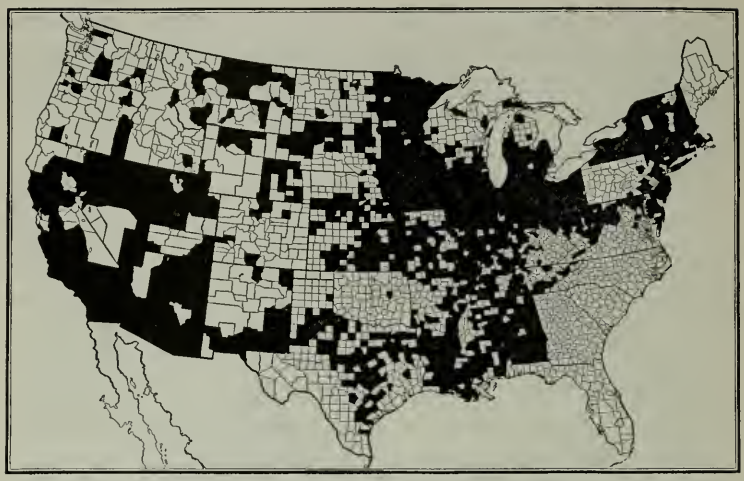
seemed, he was not expected to repay. When these facts became known, people were very angry. The Senate told its Committee on Public Lands and Surveys to find out what had happened. Suits were brought in the courts against the men who were suspected of cheating the government and the people. The leases were declared illegal and the oil lands were ordered returned to the government because, as

the Supreme Court said in the Doheny decision, "the whole transaction was tainted with corruption. . . . Fall so favored the making of these contracts and leases that it was impossible for him loyally or faithfully to serve the interests of the United States."

Probably these disgraces were no worse than those that usually follow great wars. They may have involved more money, but they were no worse in nature than those that followed the Civil War during Grant's terms. They were soon discovered, and some at least of those who were guilty were publicly disgraced and punished.

The Farm Bloc. While these scandals were alarming the nation Congress was busy with other problems as well. Coolidge, like Harding before him, vetoed a bonus bill which said that each soldier should receive a gift of money for his service to his country; but Congress passed the bill over his veto. Then the farmers, who were suffering keenly all over the country, called on Congress to help them. They had been prosperous during the war; but in 1920 they suddenly found themselves unable to sell their crops. It cost them more to raise a bushel of corn or oats or a pound of bacon than they could get for it. Meanwhile Canadian farmers were sending trainloads of good wheat and meat into the United States. This made prices still lower, and increased the demand for a tariff on farm products.

In the spring of 1921 the farmers' friends in Congress organized what was called a farm bloc to help them if possible. The bloc had few members, but the Democrats and the Republicans were so nearly equal in numbers that it held the balance of power; that is, it could pass or defeat a bill by voting one way or the other. This gave it a considerable degree of power, and it used this power to force such bills through Congress as would help the farming interest.



Farm Bureaus

The black spaces on this map show the extent of farm bureaus. A farm bureau is a county organization made by the farmers themselves. The movement started in New York State about 1912, grew slowly for a time, and then extended widely and rapidly after the World War. Usually the farmers combine to pay an expert (or a county agent) to help them with their problems. Often also the women employ a woman expert to advise them in the care of children and in housekeeping. Boys' and girls' clubs train the children to raise fine pigs, corn, and calves and to put up fruit and vegetables for winter use

The farm bloc secured some good laws to help its constituents.[1] Under these laws (1) money was lent to farmers to help them to market their crops; (2) the Secretary of Agriculture was given power to protect farmers against the middlemen, who sometimes robbed them of a fair return for their labor; (3) the farmers shared in the tariff protection of the Fordney-McCumber Act.[2] This act, which was passed

[1] The people at home who had elected the members of the farm bloc.

[2] The Secretary of Agriculture was given the power to do three things: he could supervise the packing houses and commission merchants who sold the farmers' products and correct any dishonesty he might find in their dealings with farmers; he could prevent or correct improper speculation in grain on the stock exchanges; and he could supervise the coöperative associations for selling farm products. After the war coöperative selling greatly increased.

in 1922, raised the tariff higher than it had ever been before. It had high rates on meat, sugar, wool, wheat, and corn, and these rates had the effect of keeping certain foreign food products, skins, and fibers out of the American market.

The opponents of the Fordney-McCumber Act claimed that it hurt the farmer more than it helped him. This was because the very high duties kept Europeans from sending their manufactured goods to America. Europe itself was too poor to buy these goods. Since the Europeans could not sell their goods, they had no money with which to buy the food raised by American farmers, which had formerly been sold in Europe. That is, the old foreign market which had helped to make American farmers prosperous when the century began was now gone; and farming methods were so good that farmers easily raised more food than was needed in the United States. No laws could bring high prices again while the supply of food was greater than the demand.

New Immigration Laws. At this time a great many people thought that immigration should be slowed down. So many immigrants had come to America since 1900 that they formed little foreign communities in the great cities. They spoke their own language and lived and thought much as they had in the Old World. The World War had shown everyone what students of such things already knew: that these people were not really Americans, and that they did not know how to build up the country, even when they wanted to.

These conditions brought a great demand from the people for restrictive laws. The first one came in 1917, when Congress passed a law which said that no grown person could enter America who could not read either English or some other language. President Wilson vetoed the bill, thinking it unfair to shut people out because their country had not given them a chance to become educated. But so great

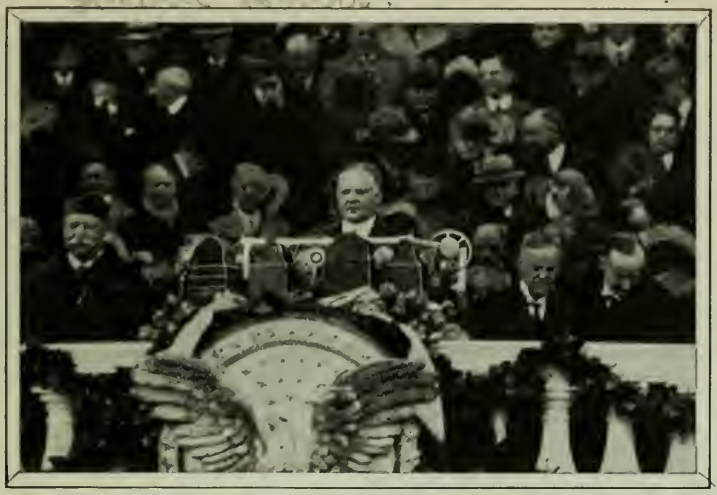
Signing the Peace Pact

The final act binding the United States to observe the terms of the multilateral pact renouncing war was performed in 1929 in the East Wing of the White House, when President Coolidge and Secretary of State Kellogg signed the resolution of ratification before a large gathering of Cabinet members, senators, and congressmen. In the photograph, seated from left to right, are General Dawes, President Coolidge, Secretary Kellogg, and Secretary Mellon

was the feeling among the people that ignorant immigrants were not wanted that Congress passed the bill over the veto.

In 1921 came an act which said that European and African countries might each year send to America only 3 per cent of the number of their people who were in the United States in 1910. In 1924 another immigration act cut down the yearly number from each nation to 2 per cent of those of that nationality who were in the United States in 1890. It also forbade the entry of over one hundred and fifty thousand in any one year.

Lawlessness. Both the new people who came from Europe and the native Americans were guilty after the war of a fault which caused grave concern to the thoughtful



An Inauguration attended by the Nation

The inauguration scene of March 4, 1929, when the radio devices (shown just above the shield and eagle) enabled every citizen who had a receiving set to hear the oath of office and the inauguration address. The east plaza of the Capitol is used for the ceremony; on this occasion a crowd of about twenty thousand stood for hours in a cold rain to see it. The picture shows Chief Justice Taft at the left, President Hoover speaking, and at the right Ex-President Coolidge

people of the nation. There was a widespread and serious disrespect for law, and it seemed to grow worse instead of better in the first decade after the close of the war. Accounts of robberies and murders appear in nearly every newspaper. Many drivers of automobiles recklessly break the traffic rules. Both state laws and United States laws are disregarded as if it were of no importance whether they are obeyed or broken. These conditions are a cause of great concern to all true American citizens; for they know that if the people fail to have respect for its laws, no country can continue to advance and to produce men like Franklin, Washington, Hamilton, Jefferson, Lincoln, Cleveland, Roosevelt, and Wilson.

Mr. Kellogg and the Peace Pact. Coolidge's administration closed with a notable victory for peace. Secretary of

State Kellogg, taking up a proposal to renounce war as an instrument of national policy, proposed to all nations a treaty which should embody this agreement. Senator Borah and his friends accepted it as securing an outlawry of war, which they had advocated; but the suggestion of the treaty was made by M. Briand, the French foreign minister. A great treaty was drawn up at Paris and submitted to all nations for their acceptance. On July 24, 1929, President Hoover proclaimed the ratification of the treaty by practically all nations. It is a declaration that war is no longer a legal way to settle differences, and it calls upon the nations never to use any but peaceful means.

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Herbert Clark Hoover

Herbert Clark Hoover was born in Iowa in 1874. He graduated at Stanford in engineering in 1895, and has since received honorary degrees from twenty-six universities in America and Europe. His profession of engineering took him to Mexico, Canada, Australia, Italy, Great Britain, South Africa, India, China, and Russia. Besides serving on almost countless commissions and boards, Mr. Hoover has found time to translate (with his wife) Agricola's *De Re Metallica*, an interesting Latin book on metals and mining

Hoover's Presidency. In 1928 the Democrats nominated Governor Alfred Smith of New York for the presidency. In answer to a great demand from the people the Republicans nominated Herbert Hoover. They made Senator Curtis of Kansas his running mate.[1] Hoover and Curtis were elected by a large

[1] Curtis had a very small proportion of Indian blood and belonged to the tribe of the Kaws, or Kansas Indians.

majority. Mr. Hoover was an engineer who had had an almost world-wide experience in his profession. During the World War he had organized relief work for the starving Belgians. He was well known in Europe and Asia as well as at home. He did not like war, and as soon as he could he began to carry out the principles of the Pact of Paris.

The Visit of Premier MacDonald. By good fortune, in 1929 the newly chosen Labor Party premier of Great Britain was Ramsay MacDonald, a Scot as anxious as Hoover to do away with war. In October of that year he came to America to talk with Mr. Hoover about disarmament. The American people welcomed him with the highest honors. After they had had an opportunity to talk things over, Hoover and MacDonald announced that another conference for disarmament would be held early in 1930. At once invitations were sent out from England for this meeting, which was set for January, 1930, in London. The result of this last conference cannot be seen as yet; but one thing does seem assured — that the United States and its friendly neighbor nations are moving slowly toward a day when war will be a thing of the past.

Review and Project

1. Show what had to be done in the United States to change from war to peace.

2. Tell what was done for those who took part in the World War. Why did not the government give land to its returned soldiers, as had been done in the eighteen-sixties?

3. Read the Eighteenth and Nineteenth amendments to the Constitution (see Appendix B). Show how the Nineteenth Amendment differs from the Fifteenth.

4. What did the League of Nations, the Washington Conference, the World Court, and President Hoover working with Premier MacDonald, each try to do for the cause of peace?

5. Make a list of the presidents who have died in office. Who succeeded each of them?

6. During and after the World War there was a great drive to "Americanize" the foreign-living, foreign-thinking part of the population. What do you think makes a real American?

7. The national Bureau of Mines tells miners and mine-owners how to make their work safer for life and health. Why should this be done by the government and paid for by taxes?

8. Give a floor talk on "The Effects of the World War on the American Farmer."

9. Watch the newspapers for a week for specific cases of law violations. Report your findings to the class. Are you or members of your family guilty of disrespect for law?

10. In what ways were the corruption of Grant's time and that of Harding's time alike? How did they differ?

11. Speaking before the Assembly of the League of Nations on September 3, 1929, Ramsay MacDonald said, "The peoples of the world want to close forever the old military chapters of Europe and begin new ones which will be brighter and more hopeful in their prospects." What do you think he meant by such a statement?

UNIT V. HOW LABOR AND BUSINESS BROUGHT A SHARING OF THE NATION'S GIFTS

We have seen that scientists seek the truth about the world we live in. We have seen that inventors make the machinery with which we live and do our work; and that this machinery grows constantly better, so that men need to do less and less work with hand and body. We have seen that educators of many kinds teach the nation how to use what the past has left of beauty and wisdom, as well as the new things given by science and invention. The representatives of the people in the government make the laws and unite the nation. Besides all this service, another class of men give to the nation the wealth that makes science, in-

vention, and education possible. They are the workers with hand and brain. In the past they have often been considered two distinct classes, because they are divided into those who plan and engineer, or the business men, and those who do the actual work, or the laborers. They are usually spoken of as labor and capital, and in the past they have often been enemies and worked against each other. They actually work together to produce wealth; and they work together better in America than in the Old World, although even in America there have been and still are bitter quarrels about wages and working conditions. They cannot really be considered apart; for business men are helpless without labor, and labor is equally helpless without capital, which gives them employment.

We shall now see what progress labor and capital have made since about 1900 in their one big job of bringing the nation nearer to its ideal of sharing the national wealth and opportunity among its citizens fairly.

1. Labor since 1900

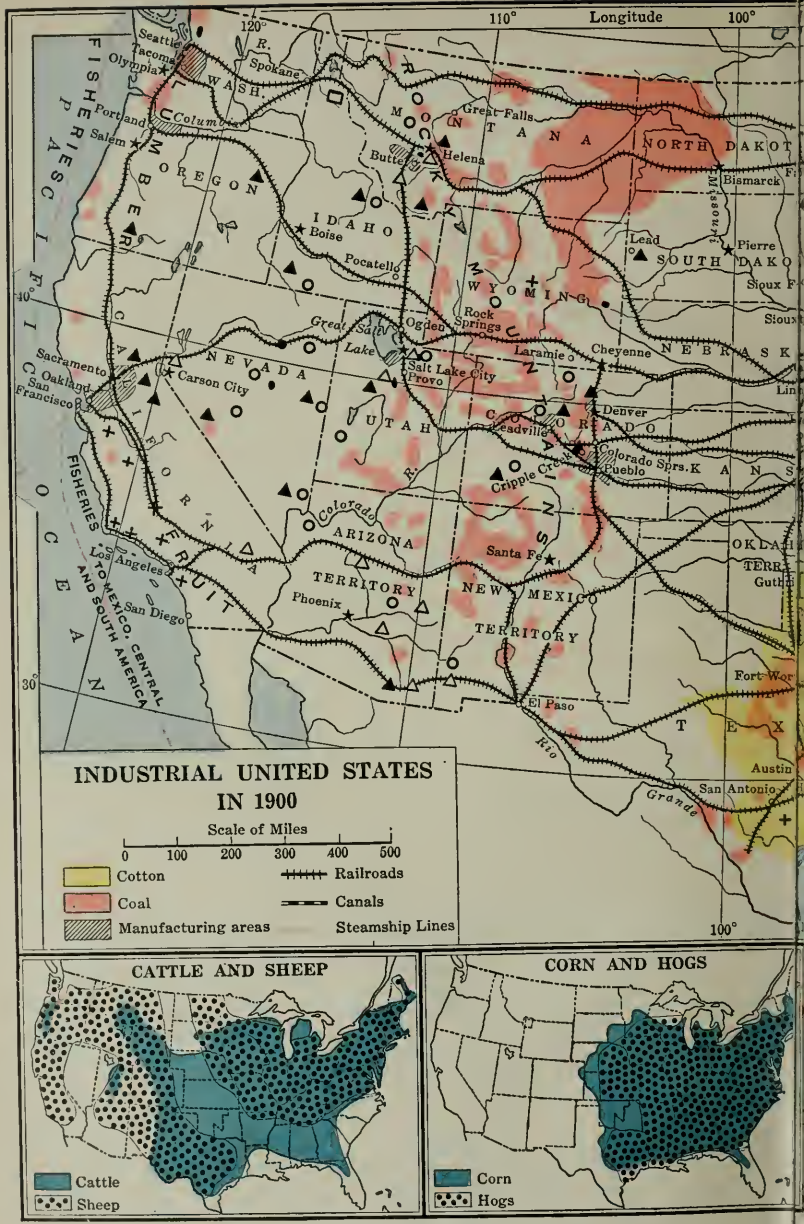
Growth of Organization. The bad conditions of the eighteen-nineties had led to a number of distressing strikes; and although those strikes sometimes failed to win their direct object, they had one good result: they won sympathy for workingmen and their demands. The public felt that workers had the same right to organize as business had. They felt that workers had the same right to live comfortably and happily that other people had. After 1896 the labor unions began to grow in membership very rapidly. By 1916 the American Federation of Labor had over 2,000,000 workers enrolled; by 1930 there were nearly 3,000,000 members.[1] Samuel Gompers was its president until 1924,

[1] The average membership for the year 1929 was 2,933,545. Other labor organizations, such as the United Mine Workers of America and the Brotherhood of Railway Engineers, grew in proportion.

having served since 1881 except for the one year 1895. Under his able leadership the Federation worked steadily and wisely to improve the conditions of workers. It did not work against the people and their government: it tried rather to win the understanding of the people and to get from the government fair laws and just enforcement. The radical, or "red," laborers, who believed in some form of communism, did not like this policy and broke away from the main body in 1905.[1] They formed the Industrial Workers of the World, generally known as the I.W.W., but their numbers did not greatly increase.

The right efforts of labor to secure better wages, houses, schools, and conditions for itself met with approval from fair-minded people. The public was beginning to see that one class of miserable, discontented people in a community made trouble and danger for all. On the other hand, the public did not approve of the "closed shop"; that is, of the shutting out of nonunion laborers from earning a living side by side with union workers. They thought the "open shop" was fairer. But if unions were not allowed to control labor for its own good, then the public realized that employers must remove the causes of discontent which made unions necessary. The work of Henry Ford and other business men, who paid high wages and made great fortunes for themselves in doing it, had its effect. In some businesses wages went higher and higher; but some continued to pay as little as they could. The business of coal-mining, for instance, still paid starvation wages. Experts told the country that coal-mining was very badly managed; and the suspicion grew that if wages were too low in any business, there must be bad management in that business.

[1] A communist believes that the wealth of a country should be held equally by all the people. He would take wealth away from the rich to give it to the poor.


Longitude
120°
110°
100°
30°
Seattle
Tacoma
Olympia
Spokane
WASH.
Portland
Salem
OREGON
Columbia R.
FISHERIES
PACIFIC OCEAN
Great Falls
MONTANA
Helena
Butte
IDAHO
Boise
Pocatello
NORTH DAKOTA
Bismarck
Missouri R.
Lead
Pierre
SOUTH DAKO
Sioux F
WYOMING
Rock Springs
Ogden
Great Salt Lake
Salt Lake City
Provo
Laramie
Cheyenne
NEBRASK
Sacramento
Oakland
San Francisco
CALIFORNIA
Carson City
NEVADA
UTAH
Denver
COLORADO
Leadville
Colorado Sprs.
Pueblo
KANS
Cripple Cr.
Rio Grande R.
Colorado R.
ARIZONA
TERRITORY
Phoenix
Santa Fe
NEW MEXICO
TERRITORY
OKLA
TERR
Guth
Los Angeles
San Diego
FISHERIES
FRUIT
TO MEXICO, CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA
El Paso
Fort Wor
T E X
Austin
San Antonio
Rio Grande
INDUSTRIAL UNITED STATES IN 1900
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Cotton
Coal
Manufacturing areas
Railroads
Canals
Steamship Lines
CATTLE AND SHEEP
Cattle
Sheep
CORN AND HOGS
Corn
Hogs

from
90°
Greenwich
80°
70°
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa
Toronto
Buffalo
Detroit
Chicago
Milwaukee
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Duluth
Winona
Madison
Dubuque
Rockford
Des Moines
Council Bluffs
Peoria
St. Joseph
Springfield
Kansas City
Jefferson City
St. Louis
Indianapolis
Columbus
Dayton
Cincinnati
Louisville
Frankfort
Charleston
Richmond
Norfolk
Washington
Baltimore
Philadelphia
Harrisburg
New York
Boston
Portland
Augusta
Springfield
Providence
Haven
Albany
Utica
Rochester
Buffalo
Toledo
Fort Wayne
Lansing
Saginaw
Grand Rapids
Milwaukee
Joplin
Nashville
Winston-Salem
Raleigh
Charlotte
Wilmington
Little Rock
Atlanta
Columbia
Augusta
Macon
Birmingham
Charleston
Savannah
Dallas
Shreveport
Jackson
Montgomery
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
Mobile
Beaumont
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Galveston
Tampa
Townsville
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Erie
L. Ontario
St. Marys R. and Canal
St. Lawrence R.
Lake Champlain
Hudson R.
Connecticut R.
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Kansas R.
Red R.
Rio Grande
Superior
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
IOWA
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
KENTUCKY
WEST VIRGINIA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
VERMONT
N.H.
MAINE
MISSOURI
TENNESSEE
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
MISS.
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
TEXAS
FLORIDA
DEL.
MD.
VIRGINIA
FISHERIES
LUMBER
FRUIT
SUGAR BEET
SUGAR CANE
TO WEST INDIES
TO VERA CRUZ
TO PANAMA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
40°
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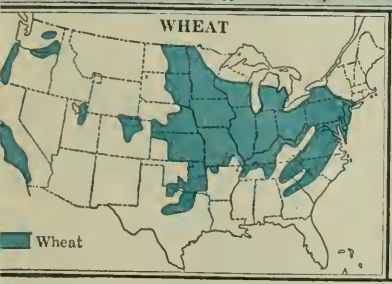
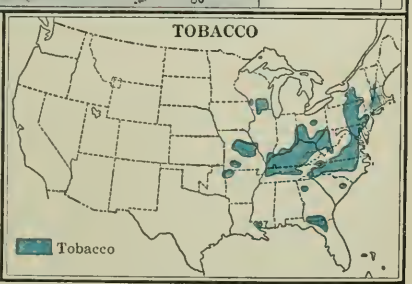
90°
80°
Iron
Petroleum
Copper
Gold
Silver
Lead


WHEAT
Wheat


TOBACCO
Tobacco

Labor enters Politics. As the numbers in the labor unions grew they were drawn into politics almost against their will. Labor wanted certain reforms; and working men would naturally vote for the party which promised to grant those reforms. In 1908, and again in 1912, the Democratic party said in its platforms that it would favor reforms in labor; in 1912 the Republican party joined its rival in this bid for the labor vote. Meanwhile the Supreme Court had come to labor's aid in an important decision. It had long been impossible to get the laws for shorter hours which labor needed, because the courts said that workers had the right to sell their work as they saw fit, even if they saw fit to hurt their health by working too long. In 1908 the Supreme Court said that a state could limit the hours of women workers by law. It said that the health of the human race is of such importance to the state that the state may make laws which will protect health, including laws on hours of work. With this support a number of states passed laws limiting the hours of work for women and children.

A National Child-Labor Law. But as some states would not thus protect their women and children, an effort was made to secure a national law forbidding child labor in factories, which was the greatest evil and needed correcting first. Such a law was passed by Congress in 1916, but it was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. Another law, passed in 1919, was also ruled out by the Supreme Court in 1922. The friends of children now framed an amendment to the Constitution which clearly gave Congress the power to make laws to control the labor of those under eighteen years of age. The amendment was put before the people in 1924. At once there began a fight against it, and in the fall elections of that year it was defeated in several states. Only five states had ratified the amendment by 1930. At present, therefore, child labor is limited only by states.

There has, however, been some improvement in the lot of poor children since 1900. In 1900 several states had no laws that compelled children to be sent to school; by 1930 every state had some sort of compulsory-attendance law which kept children in school until they were at least fourteen years old. In 1900 children were still allowed to work in mines in some states; today they cannot do so until they are sixteen. With these improvements many states still allow children to do work which should be done only by grown people. Twenty-eight states still permit children to work on railroads, for instance; thirty-one permit them to work on scaffolding; thirty-nine allow them to go to work at fourteen. The 1920 census showed that one American child in twelve has to work for a living. To consider all these and other problems of the welfare of children, President Hoover called a conference to meet in Washington in 1930. The conference considered the health, education, failures, and work of children. Perhaps after this conference some of the backward states will make better laws; but at all events the conference will call the attention of the public to the needs of children.

The Working Week. One of the greatest aims of the labor unions and of the friends of labor was to shorten the hours of labor so that working people would have time for rest, play, and worship. It was not easy to secure laws to make the working day shorter or to allow a Saturday half-holiday. But after 1900, with or without laws, the working week did grow shorter and shorter. One reason was that machines did so much of the work formerly done by men that it was possible to do more work in fewer hours. Another reason was that people found out that workers do more work, week in and week out, in eight hours than they do in ten. They are healthier, happier, and stronger with shorter work hours, and therefore turn out more product. The fact that em-

ployers knew this shows that education on labor subjects was having its results. Scientists told their readers about the laws of fatigue; that is, how much work can be done before the body grows so tired that it does its work badly. Business men discovered that it paid to cut down the working day. The steel industry, which formerly had a twelve-hour day for its men, announced in 1923 that it intended to bring its working day down to eight hours as soon as possible.[1] As the working day grew shorter there was a growing movement also to give workers a Saturday half-holiday. This has now become fairly general; and workers talk freely of the time, which they think is in sight, when there will be only five working days in a week, with a full holiday besides Sunday for all workers.

Workers' Accident Insurance. The labor unions, with their newspapers and pamphlets, carried on their own educational work. The magazines and newspapers read by the general public helped by printing many articles which dealt with labor problems. Especially, they told Americans what was going on among laborers in Europe and other parts of the world. Among the ideas thus brought to America was the idea that society should in some way provide for the old age of workers. Workers rarely save enough to live on when they are too old to work. They cannot even save enough to tide them over an illness or an accident. The public, then, must come to their aid in some way when they are hurt or ill or too old to work or when work fails. In Germany and several other countries of Europe, plans for insuring workers have been in force for many years. The workers pay a weekly sum from their wages while they have work; then, when they cannot work, they are provided

[1] The change wrought in ten years is startling: in 1909 less than 8 per cent of the nation's wage-earners had an eight-hour day; in 1919 nearly 50 per cent were working eight hours or even less.

for from the fund thus made, with additional money given by the government from taxes. The insurance thus given the workers is for illness, accidents, unemployment, and old age.

The insurance idea grew very slowly in America. In 1902 Maryland led the way by passing the first American workmen's accident-insurance act. This was later declared unconstitutional, and so became void. But the workers and their friends kept on trying; and about 1910 the courts changed their minds about the lawfulness of workers' compensation acts, as they were called. Then many states made insurance laws for their workers, of which most were against accidents while at work. By 1920 all but six states had such laws, as well as Porto Rico, Alaska, and Hawaii. The national government protected its workers by a similar law.

Other kinds of insurance for workers — especially old-age and unemployment insurance — have not found favor in America. Most Americans seem to think that it is better to secure high wages and then to let the workers arrange for their own idle periods and old age. But since higher wages have come in only a few kinds of work as yet, and since work often fails even in prosperous America, this plan does not yet solve the problem. The workers' troubles have been made less, but they are still a very real problem in America. Before they can be solved much more education must be had both for workers and for employers.

Review

1. Give a floor talk on the history of labor unions in the United States in the century from 1830 to 1930.

2. List all the laws you can that have helped laborers to live in a better way. Are they all labor laws?

3. *Resolved,* That Samuel Gompers did more for labor than Henry Ford.

4. *Resolved,* That high wages are better than old-age insurance.

Project and Activity

1. *Resolved,* That the working week should consist of five days, with holidays on Sunday and Monday.

2. How many hours did your grandfather work? How many hours does your father work? Does the kind of work change the number of hours required?

3. During recent years laboring people have gone into banking in a number of cities. They were encouraged by the older banking houses; and their banks have succeeded. What does this show about labor and capital?

4. List some of the things that must still be done before labor has an opportunity equal to that of capital.

5. Below is a table showing the percentage of child labor in ten states by the 1920 census. Make on blackboard or paper a bar or line graph which will show the percentage.

States	Child Workers from Ten to Fifteen Years	Total Child Population	Percentage of Workers
Georgia	88,934	427,235	20.8
Alabama	84,397	349,537	24.1
Texas	80,872	642,586	12.6
Mississippi	70,354	275,782	25.5
South Carolina	63,520	260,204	24.4
North Carolina	62,162	373,484	16.6
Pennsylvania	55,671	996,916	5.6
New York	49,846	1,059,635	4.7
Arkansas	48,140	259,593	18.5
Tennessee	39,837	323,548	12.3

2. Business Men and the Nation

Although workers do the labor which helps to make wealth, business men furnish two other factors in wealth-making: they plan the enterprises and they find the money or other wealth which furnishes the capital. Since 1900 the eight greatest businesses in the United States have been farm-

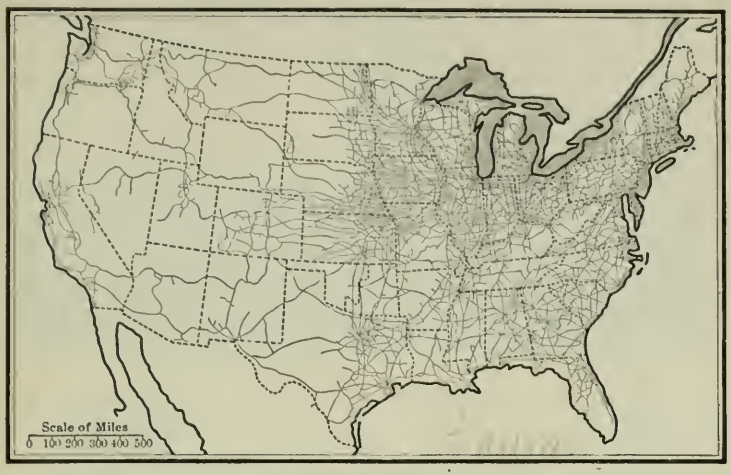
ing, building, railroading, textiles, the making of machinery, lumbering, iron and steel, and the making of motor cars.

Farming is really a business, although the farmer is usually business man and laborer in one. It has always been the leading business in America, and it is yet. It has first place in the number of workers employed, in the value of the land, houses, machines, animals, plants, and other kinds of capital used, and in the value of the product. Farming employs over ten million workers, it has an investment of nearly sixty billion dollars, and its yearly output is worth over fifteen billion dollars. If, then, this most important industry suffers, it is clear that the whole country must sooner or later suffer with it; for no other kind of work employs half as many people or makes half as valuable a product. If farmers cannot buy, all the manufacturing industries suffer; if farmers cannot produce, the people suffer for food.

Next to farming in importance come the building businesses. These employ over three million men, and they add to the nation's wealth, in finished buildings, about seven billion dollars a year. Among the builders the carpenters number almost a million men.

The business of railroading comes next to building, as it employs over two million men and has over twenty-five billion dollars invested. Then come the textile industries, which make all sorts of woven materials and knit goods. They employ over a million workers, men and women and children. If one were to take ten typical textile workers out of the whole number, he would find that four worked in cotton mills, two in silk mills, one in a wool mill, and the others in various kinds of fibers.

The next business in importance is the making of all sorts of machinery, from threshing machines to typewriters. Then come the lumber industry, which grows less important as



The Railroads in 1900

The mileage of the railroads in the United States in 1900 was almost equal to an eight-track road encircling the globe Compare this map with the maps which are shown on page 405

the forests are cut down, and the iron and steel industry. The making of motor cars ranks last of the major industries.

Below these eight biggest industries come those of oil, coal, and electricity. The making of ready-made clothing employs about half a million people, centered mainly in four great cities — New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and Baltimore. The printing business and the telephone service rank next in the number they employ and the value of their product. Meat, rubber, shoes, baking, paper, and tobacco finish the list of twenty great industries, except for the entertainment business. Huge investments and large returns are found in the making of motion pictures, and theaters and entertainment parks also handle large sums of money.

Except for railroading, these are production businesses, which make wealth, and they have all grown enormously since 1900. Another army of people is busy all the time

taking their product to the people who want it. These are the transporters and the merchants. Their work, of course, has kept pace with that of the producers. The merchants and storekeepers and clerks all over the country sell the product to the public. The easiest way of measuring the product of a country is to find out how much these people sell.

Exports and Imports. If we look at government reports, we find that the goods sent out of the United States to other countries since 1900 grew, as is shown by this table, which gives the exports for every fifth year:

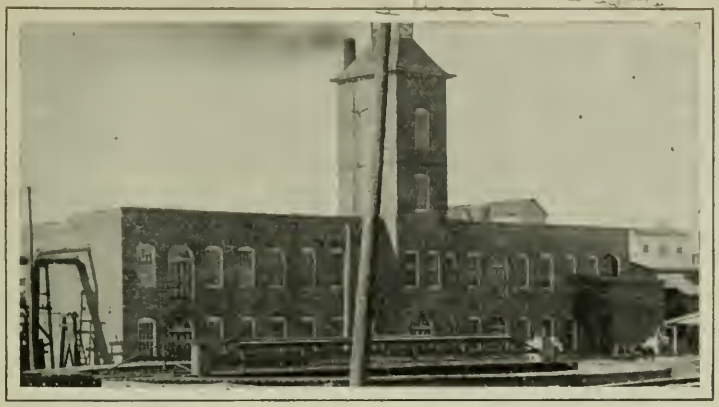
Year	Exports
1900	$1,307,763,571
1905	1,491,744,641
1910	1,710,083,998
1915	2,716,178,455
1920	7,949,309,106[1]
1925	4,818,722,000

At the same time the merchants brought more and more goods into the country from foreign lands, as is shown by the following table:

Year	Imports
1900	$ 849,941,184
1905	1,117,513,071
1910	1,556,947,430
1915	1,674,169,740
1920	2,238,352,114
1925	4,226,589,000

Developing the Home Market. While some business men built up this immense foreign trade, others sold more and more right at home. They sold more of the old things that had been selling for decades, and they also sold tons of new things which people a few years before had not thought

[1] The very large increase in the figures for 1920 is in *value* of exports, not in amount. This is because prices were very high at that time owing to the recent war. The cost of living was very high in 1920.



The Old Type of Factory

This cotton mill in the South is like hundreds of other mills and factories in all parts of the land. It is strongly and neatly built, but it is not beautiful, nor are its surroundings planned to give pleasure to those who see them

The New Type of Factory

This is not a country gentleman's house, but the plant of a printing company in Cincinnati. The factory itself and the grounds have been planned by a skilled architect to be both beautiful and useful

of buying. This was because manufacturers used advertising a great deal, and the advertising was so well done that it made people want things. Men and women wanted and bought silk underwear and stockings, cigarettes, garden furniture, ginger ale, tooth paste, perfumes, snakeskin shoes, evening clothes — things that their parents less often used — because they read the advertisements. Moreover, they had the money to pay for them because of the higher wages that came after 1900. And so the making and selling of all sorts of things, both at home and abroad, made the United States a great manufacturing nation as well as a great farming nation.

Bigger and Bigger Business. The work of uniting small businesses into large ones, and large ones into nation-wide or world-wide combinations, went on after 1900. So long as these combinations were legal and did not become monopolies, they were allowed to become larger and larger. The people had now found out that such unions may be very good things. They knew they were more economical, for instance, than small businesses, and for that reason were often able to pay higher wages. They also served the public better than small businesses could. In 1929, for instance, the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad proposed to unite under one management sixteen different railroads which had together nearly fourteen thousand miles of track. When the request to be allowed to unite was sent to the Interstate Commerce Commission in February, 1929, the public read about the plan and was much interested, but did not object. Since Theodore Roosevelt's "trust-busting" days, the principles of big business had been established, the public had gained control through the Interstate Commerce Commission, and therefore there was little fear of trusts.

Some Prophecies that Failed. When the Industrial Revolution made a larger working class and richer capitalists than there had ever been before, some people thought

that the world would some day have just two classes of people. There would be a few very rich people living in idleness, and there would be an army of poor workers, miserable and ignorant. The rich would grow richer, and the poor poorer. That was the prophecy of many students and writers about a hundred years ago.

But when the last quarter of the nineteenth century came, it began to appear that the prophecy was not coming true. When 1900 was passed, it was clear that something quite different was happening. There were rich men, to be sure. They were usually business men whose shrewd business sense had built up great fortunes by using what nature provided to give men what they wanted. They had given men oil, or sugar, or railroads, or steamships, or telephones, or steel. The fortunes always came out of seeing what was wanted, and furnishing it. But these men who made great fortunes were hard workers, and most of them brought up their children to work as well. They did not become princes, and they did not establish an idle aristocracy living solely on the work of others. The idle rich are so small a class in America that they do not greatly affect the life or thinking of the people; they have little influence and no popular respect. Instead, there grew up among rich and poor in America a strong feeling that rich men owe a great duty to the public; that their wealth is really not their own, but a trust given to them to use for the good of all. Fortunately, most American rich men have felt this as strongly as the poor, perhaps even more so. Andrew Carnegie wrote in 1889 that the millionaire was but a trustee for the poor, and that in a few years people would say that a man died disgraced who died without making provision for the use of his wealth for public good.

The prophecies that the poor would grow poorer have also failed. Wages are still low and uncertain for most workers,

but not so low and not so uncertain as they were in the past. The average worker of 1925 had better food and more of it, better clothing, a better house, and better schools for his children than the average worker of 1900; and the worker of 1900 was far ahead of the worker of 1800. The improvement has been fastest in recent years. It has been found that the average income of workers increased from $2024 for a family of five in 1921 to $2300 for a family of five in 1926. This was a greater increase than would have come if the income of all the rich people who have a million or more a year had been divided among the poor; that is, it has helped the poor more for rich people to invest their money in businesses which paid wages than any scheme of communism would have helped them. In organizing enterprises the business men served as human machines for creating and dividing wealth among the people. The division has not been just; but it has been more nearly just in recent years than it used to be, and it grows more nearly just all the time.

Work of the Foundations. Besides their work of managing business, the business men with really great fortunes gave away vast sums of money. They sometimes left this money in their wills to schools, hospitals, orphanages, and all sorts of societies that work to help people. Of late years they have usually not waited to leave the money in their wills, but like Mr. Carnegie and the Rockefellers, have given it away while they lived. In such cases the money is usually handled by a board called, like the fund it uses, a foundation.[1]

[1] One of the earliest foundations in America was made by Benjamin Franklin, who wrote in his will in 1790 that since he himself had been helped by a kind loan of money which was the foundation of his fortune, he wanted to be useful even after his death by helping other young men who might become useful to their country. He therefore left a thousand pounds to his birthplace, Boston, and another thousand pounds to Philadelphia. Part was to furnish loans to worthy young men and part was to be put at interest for a hundred years.

There are now at work about a hundred and eighty foundations which are founded on American money. Fifty-eight of them are local in their service; they were founded by generous citizens to make life better in some one community. Thirty-seven are for charity of various kinds, and twenty-nine for education. Eleven work to make the lives of children easier and to give them a better chance, seven work for health, and five for world peace. A smaller number are devoted to music or the other fine arts, to religion, to Negro welfare, to science, to economics, to agriculture, to the blind, to heroism, or to the protection of wild life. The story of their work is a long one and a good one. The Peabody Education Fund was among the earlier foundations. It opened schools in the South and supported them until the towns and cities in which they were located were able to take care of them. It also furnished an endowment (that is, money from which the interest brings in a regular income) for the George Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville. Besides building libraries, Andrew Carnegie established eight foundations, including one for his native Scotland and one for Great Britain and Ireland. John D. Rockefeller and his son, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., established five foundations (later united into three), which work all over the world for health, science, education, and charity. The Juilliard Musical Foundation educates gifted students in music; the Julius Rosenwald Fund helps Negroes and others to secure health and education. These are but a few illustrations of the work done for the people because rich men realize that their wealth is a trust.

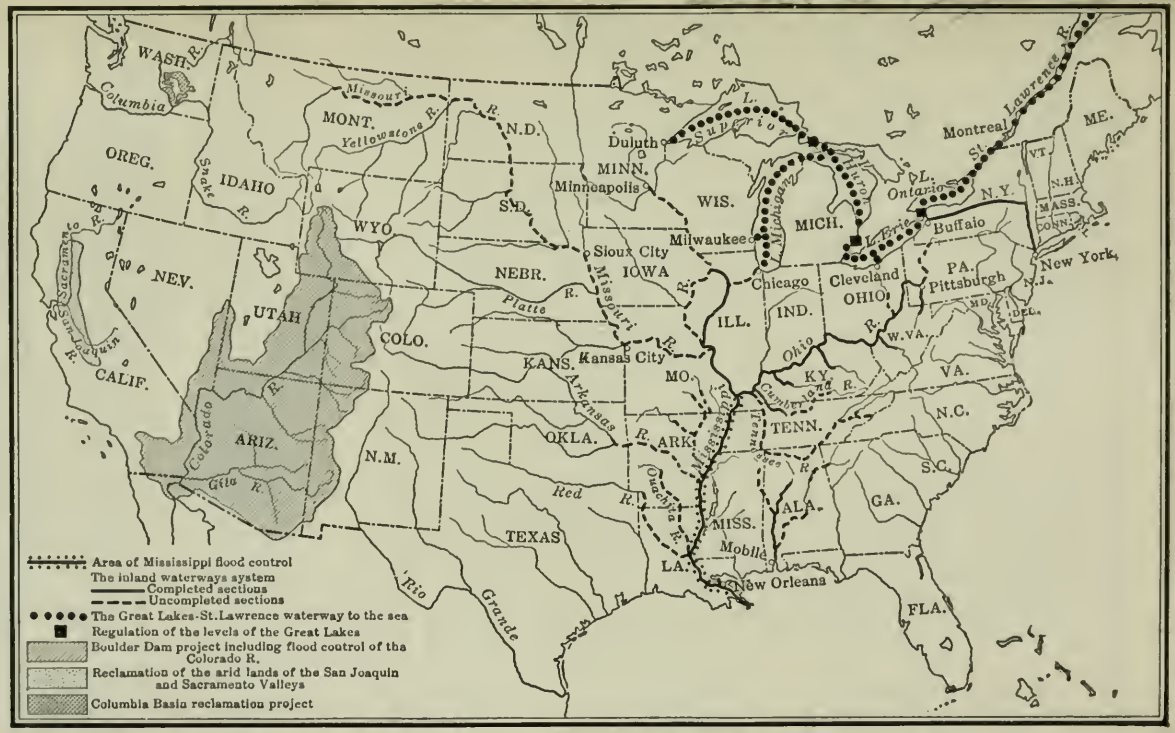
Business Men and the Government. We have seen that when enterprises were too large for private business to carry on, the government helped or undertook the whole project. Thus the government gave land to the railroad companies after the Civil War; and when neither states nor business

men could build the great dams needed for irrigation, the national government made them. But while the government helps business, business also helps the government. Business men advise the government, making plans and helping to carry them out. Often they give up their own work for a period of years, to serve their country. They often lose a great deal of money in this way, for the government cannot pay them so much as business does.[1]

An important example of the close relation between business and government is found in the development of water power. The United States has hundreds of falls and rapids which can be used for power to light cities, to run machinery, to do housework. Shall these "white coal" possibilities be run by the government or by private business men? This is one of the great problems which the American people must sooner or later decide. Since 1900 three great water projects have been discussed widely because when they are complete they will affect the life of the whole nation, directly or indirectly: that of Muscle Shoals, Tennessee, that of Boulder Dam on the Colorado River, and that of the St. Lawrence River. The latter is really part of the Great Lakes system, which for a hundred years has been an important part of American transportation.[2]

[1] There are many examples of this. A recent one is that of Alexander Legge, who in 1929 resigned a business position which paid him a salary of $100,000 to be chairman of the Federal Farm Board, with a salary of $12,000 a year.

[2] The first Sault Sainte Marie Canal was built by the Northwest Fur Company in 1797–1798; this was destroyed by American troops in the War of 1812. Michigan built a second canal in 1853–1855, which was enlarged by the national government and finally taken over in 1882. Canada also built a canal which was opened in 1895. The "Soo" canals are by far the most useful in the world so far as amount of shipping is concerned. If all the tonnage that goes through the Suez, Kiel, Manchester, Erie, Welland, and St. Lawrence River canals were put together, it would not equal that which passes through the "Soo" in its April-to-December season. There are no tonnage charges for the use of this canal.



Map showing Plans for the Development of American Water Resources

Boulder Dam. In 1929 the St. Lawrence River and Muscle Shoals projects were unfinished. The Boulder Dam project was only started. The decision of the government was to undertake the dam itself, following the advice of business men and engineers in its management. The plan was to have Congress pass an act which said that when six of the seven states that would be affected had consented, the national government would undertake the work. This work is to build in the Colorado River valley, about thirty miles southeast of Las Vegas, Nevada, the highest wall yet made to control water. When completed, the dam will do four things: it will create a reservoir and canals to irrigate four hundred thousand acres in the Imperial Valley of California; it will furnish water to distant cities, such as Denver and Los Angeles; it will give over half a million horse power of daily electrical service to mills and factories; and it will protect sixty thousand people from the danger of floods. This work will cost the government about $165,000,000. It is to be repaid by the farmers and manufacturers who use the water and power over a period of fifty years. Seldom in the world's history, if ever, has a government undertaken any business project so huge as this.

Review and Project

1. What are the twenty leading businesses of the United States? How many of them produce goods? How many of them give services?

2. Why is the difference between a farmer and a manufacturer growing less year by year?

3. Make a two-line graph showing both exports and imports on the same board or paper. Use red for one and blue for the other. How do they compare? Can you tell why? Use the tables on page 614.

4. Give a five-minute talk on "The Effect of Advertising on Business," with illustrations from your own observation.

5. Write a short essay on "The Business Man and *Noblesse Oblige*." If you do not know the meaning of this French phrase, ask your teacher to explain it.

6. What facts which you studied in previous units helped to bring about the rise in wages that took place between 1900 and 1930?

7. Give a map talk showing the wide range of the effect of the Boulder Dam project. What are the seven states affected?

8. *Resolved*, That millionaires should be compelled by law to give away at least half their wealth.

Before Leaving Division Seven

1. Make a time line from 1450 to 1950, with decades and centuries clearly marked. On the time line locate carefully and mark the following dates: 1492, 1607, 1619, 1620, 1763, 1776, 1783, 1787, 1789, 1803, 1812, 1820, 1823, 1837, 1846, 1850, 1854, 1861, 1863, 1876, 1898, 1914, 1917, 1921, 1929, 1930. Also the periods 1492–1607, 1607–1776, 1776–1789, 1789–1930.

   a. What does each date stand for?
   b. What other events can you think of which are related to the main events in the list?

2. Debate one or more of these questions:

   a. Resolved, That scientists give more toward the nation's happiness than do statesmen.
   b. Resolved, That airways should be under the control of the League of Nations.
   c. Resolved, That the United States should join the World Court.
   d. Resolved, That a low tariff would benefit more people in the United States than a high one such as the act of 1922.

3. Prepare for your notebook

   a. A *Hall of Fame* for Division Seven.
   b. A paragraph about each of the following, telling the most important facts about his public service: Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, Thomas Edison, the Wright brothers.
   c. A folder showing the pictures of people and inventions which have made history in each of the three decades since 1900.

4. Make a map as follows:

a. Title: Continental United States in 1930.
b. Use an outline map of the present United States.
c. Name each of the forty-eight states, the capital of each state, the twenty largest cities in the land, the chief airways, and five leading ports for foreign trade.

5. Be able to do the following things:

a. Explain the meaning of the following words and expressions: equality of opportunity, laboratory, foundation, vitamin, anæsthetic, algæ, bird sanctuary, domestication, psychology, economics, sociology, mass production, transcontinental, "jitney," Iron Man, silo, tractor, robot, glider, airship, airplane, transport pilot, Carnegie library, Wisconsin idea, university extension, unemployment insurance, child-labor legislation, housing law, detectives.

6. Tell the story of the following important movements of recent times:

The Anti-Trust Movement.
The Conservation Movement.
The Labor Movement.
The Woman's Rights Movement.
The Prohibition Movement.
The Peace Movement.
The Coöperative Movement.
The Scout Movement.

A Backward Look

And now let us recall what we started to do in this study of the history of our country. In the Foreword of this book you read the following:

If we could have lived from 1492 to the present day and could have watched the development of the United States, we should have seen a marvelous story unfold before our eyes.

In 1492 we should have seen the Atlantic shore with no cities or dwellings to break the forest which bordered it. We should have seen three small shiploads of men sail toward it, and many an expedition explore it. Then we should have seen people come to live on these shores; and we should have watched them build their houses, till the soil, push back the Indians, cut down the forests, move westward to the interior, fight wars for their country, found cities, cut roads through the woods and across the plains, throw bridges over the great rivers, climb the Western mountains, run railways to the Pacific coast, and start schools and factories and churches and newspapers. And we should have watched our grandfathers and our fathers and at last ourselves come into the story and become a part of American history.

In the following pages we shall watch the stream of events from the time when America was a great continent covered with trees and grassy plains and inhabited by Indians, to the time when we ourselves became a part of the United States and began to have a share in its history.

And now we actually *have become* part of the United States, and *do share in its history*. Nobody knows just what will be written on the next page of American history: neither the President, nor Congress, nor any great writer, inventor, or successful man of business. But this we do know: the next page will contain an account of the acts of our own times — of us, who are now, for the first time, taking our part in American history.

DO THY PART HERE IN THE LIVING DAY,
AS DID THE GREAT WHO MADE OLD DAYS IMMORTAL!

Appendix A

Declaration of Independence[1]

In Congress, July 4, 1776

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: — That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the

[1] The Declaration was adopted July 4, 1776, and was signed by most of the members representing the thirteen states August 2, 1776. John Hancock, whose name appears first among the signers, was president of the Congress.

establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tryant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought

to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK

BUTTON GWINNETT, Ga.
LYMAN HALL, Ga.
GEO. WALTON, Ga.
WM. HOOPER, N. C.
JOSEPH HEWES, N. C.
JOHN PENN, N. C.
EDWARD RUTLEDGE, S. C.
THOS. HEYWARD, Jr., S. C.
THOMAS LYNCH, Jr., S. C.
ARTHUR MIDDLETON, S. C.
SAMUEL CHASE, Md.
WM. PACA, Md.
THOS. STONE, Md.
CHARLES CARROLL OF CARROLLTON, Md.
GEORGE WYTHE, Va.
RICHARD HENRY LEE, Va.
TH. JEFFERSON, Va.
BENJ. HARRISON, Va.
THOS. NELSON, Jr., Va.
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE, Va.
CARTER BRAXTON, Va.
ROBT. MORRIS, Pa.
BENJAMIN RUSH, Pa.
BENJA. FRANKLIN, Pa.
JOHN MORTON, Pa.
GEO. CLYMER, Pa.
JAS. SMITH, Pa.
GEO. TAYLOR, Pa.
JAMES WILSON, Pa.
GEO. ROSS, Pa.
CÆSAR RODNEY, Del.
GEO. READ, Del.
THO. M'KEAN, Del.
WM. FLOYD, N.Y.
PHIL. LIVINGSTON, N.Y.
FRANS. LEWIS, N.Y.
LEWIS MORRIS, N.Y.
RICHD. STOCKTON, N. J.
JNO. WITHERSPOON, N. J.
FRAS. HOPKINSON, N. J.
JOHN HART, N. J.
ABRA. CLARK, N. J.
JOSIAH BARTLETT, N. H.
WM. WHIPPLE, N. H.
SAML. ADAMS, Mass.
JOHN ADAMS, Mass.
ROBT. TREAT PAINE, Mass.
ELBRIDGE GERRY, Mass.
STEP. HOPKINS, R. I.
WILLIAM ELLERY, R. I.
ROGER SHERMAN, Conn.
SAM'EL. HUNTINGTON, Conn.
WM. WILLIAMS, Conn.
OLIVER WOLCOTT, Conn.
MATTHEW THORNTON, N. H.

Resolved, That copies of the Declaration be sent to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees, or councils of safety, and to the several commanding officers of the continental troops; that it be proclaimed in each of the United States, at the head of the army.

Appendix B

Constitution of the United States

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1. Congress

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.[1]

Section 2. House of Representatives

Election of Members. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Qualifications. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Apportionment. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers,[2] which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.[3] The actual

[1] The term of each Congress is two years. It assembles on the first Monday in December and "expires at noon of the fourth of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session, when a new Congress begins."

[2] The apportionment under the census of 1920 is one representative for every 242,267 persons.

[3] The phrase "other persons" refers to slaves. The word "slave" nowhere appears in the Constitution. This paragraph has been amended (Amendments XIII and XIV) and is no longer in force.

enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

Vacancies. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority[1] thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Officers. Impeachment. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker[2] and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Section 3. Senate

Number of Senators: Election. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. [Repealed in 1913 by Amendment XVII.]

Classification. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive[1] thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies. [Modified by Amendment XVII.]

Qualifications. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

President of Senate. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Officers. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Trials of Impeachment. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirma-

[1] Governor.

[2] The Speaker, who presides, is one of the representatives; the other officers — clerk, sergeant-at-arms, postmaster, chaplain, doorkeeper, etc. — are not.

tion. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in Case of Conviction. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Section 4. Both Houses

Manner of electing Members. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.[1]

Meetings of Congress. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section 5. The Houses Separately

Organization. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Rules. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Journal. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Adjournment. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. Privileges and Disabilities of Members

Pay and Privileges of Members. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their

[1] This is to prevent Congress from fixing the places of meeting of the state legislatures.

attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Prohibitions on Members. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Section 7. Method of passing Laws

Revenue Bills. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

How Bills become Laws. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Resolutions, etc. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section 8. Powers granted to Congress

Powers of Congress. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal,[1] and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,[2] and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; — And

Implied Powers. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.[3]

[1] Letters granted by the government to private citizens in time of war, authorizing them, under certain conditions, to capture the ships of the enemy.

[2] The District of Columbia.

[3] This is the famous elastic clause of the Constitution.

Section 9. Powers forbidden to the United States

Absolute Prohibitions on Congress. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.[1]

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus [2] shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder [3] or ex-post-facto law [4] shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken. [Extended by Amendment XVI.]

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Section 10. Powers forbidden to the States

Absolute Prohibitions on the States. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Conditional Prohibitions on the States. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net

[1] This refers to the foreign slave trade. "Persons" means "slaves." In 1808 Congress prohibited the importation of slaves. This clause is, of course, no longer in force.

[2] An official document requiring an accused person who is in prison awaiting trial to be brought into court to inquire whether he may be legally held.

[3] A special legislative act by which a person may be condemned to death or to outlawry or banishment without the opportunity of defending himself which he would have in a court of law.

[4] A law relating to the punishment of acts committed before the law was passed.

produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

Section 1. President and Vice-President

Term. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Electors. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Proceedings of Electors and of Congress. [The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.][1]

[1] This paragraph in brackets has been superseded by the Twelfth Amendment.

Time of choosing Electors. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.[1]

Qualifications of President. No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Vacancy. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.[2]

Salary. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: —"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Section 2. Powers of the President

Military Powers; Reprieves and Pardons. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Treaties; Appointments. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and

[1] The electors are chosen on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November, preceding the expiration of a presidential term. They vote (by Act of Congress of February 3, 1887) on the second Monday in January for president and vice president. The votes are counted, and declared in Congress on the second Wednesday of the following February.

[2] This has now been provided for by the Presidential Succession Act of 1886.

consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Filling of Vacancies. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Section 3. Duties of the President

Message; Convening of Congress. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information[1] of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Section 4. Impeachment

Removal of Officers. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

Section 1. United States Courts

Courts established; Judges. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

[1] The president gives this information through a message to Congress at the opening of each session. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to Congress. Jefferson, however, sent a written message to Congress. This method was followed until President Wilson returned to the earlier custom.

Section 2. Jurisdiction of United States Courts

Federal Courts in General. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; — to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; — to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; — to controversies between two or more States; — between a State and citizens of another State[1]; — between citizens of different States; — between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

Supreme Court. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Trials. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Section 3. Treason

Treason defined. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

Punishment. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. RELATIONS OF THE STATES TO EACH OTHER

Section 1. Official Acts

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

[1] This has been modified by the Eleventh Amendment.

Section 2. Privileges of Citizens

The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Fugitives from Justice. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Fugitive Slaves. No person[1] held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Section 3. New States and Territories

Admission of States. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

Territory and Property of United States. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section 4. Protection of the States

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. AMENDMENTS

How Proposed; how Ratified. The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either

[1] "Person" here includes slave. This was the basis of the fugitive-slave laws of 1793 and 1850. It is now superseded by the Thirteenth Amendment, by which slavery is prohibited.

case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Public debt. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

Supremacy of Constitution. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Official Oath; Religious Test. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

Ratification. The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.[1]

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

[1] There were sixty-five delegates chosen to the convention: ten did not attend; sixteen declined or failed to sign; and thirty-nine signed. Rhode Island sent no delegates.

NEW HAMPSHIRE
JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

MASSACHUSETTS
NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

CONNECTICUT
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

NEW YORK
ALEXANDER HAMILTON

NEW JERSEY
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY
WILLIAM PATERSON
JONATHAN DAYTON

PENNSYLVANIA
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBERT MORRIS
GEORGE CLYMER
THOMAS FITZSIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

DELAWARE
GEORGE READ
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.
JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACOB BROOM

MARYLAND
JAMES M'HENRY
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER
DANIEL CARROLL

VIRGINIA
JOHN BLAIR
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA
WILLIAM BLOUNT
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
HUGH WILLIAMSON

SOUTH CAROLINA
JOHN RUTLEDGE
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

GEORGIA
WILLIAM FEW
ABRAHAM BALDWIN

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*

AMENDMENTS [1]

Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition. ARTICLE I. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

Militia. ARTICLE II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Soldiers. ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Unreasonable Searches. ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches

[1] These amendments were proposed by Congress and ratified by the legislatures of the several states, pursuant to the fifth article of the Constitution. The first ten were offered in 1789 and adopted before the close of 1791. They were for the most part the work of Madison. They are frequently called the Bill of Rights, as their purpose is to guard more efficiently the rights of the people and of the states.

and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Criminal Prosecutions. ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Suits at Common Law. ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

Bail, Punishments. ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Reserved Rights and Powers. ARTICLE IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Suits against States. ARTICLE XI.[1] The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

Method of electing President and Vice-President. ARTICLE XII.[2] The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate; —

[1] Proposed in 1794; adopted in 1798. [2] Adopted in 1804.

the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Slavery Abolished. ARTICLE XIII.[1] *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Negroes made Citizens. ARTICLE XIV.[2] *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of

[1] Adopted in 1865. [2] Adopted in 1868.

the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

Negroes made Voters. ARTICLE XV.[1] *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Income Tax. ARTICLE XVI.[2] The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.[2] The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

Direct Election of Senators. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, that the Legislature of any State may empower the Executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

[1] Ratified in 1870. [2] Ratified in 1913.

National Prohibition. ARTICLE XVIII.[1] *Section 1.* After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the Legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

Woman Suffrage. ARTICLE XIX.[2] *Section 1.* The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Section 2. Congress shall have power, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the provisions of this article.

VOTE IN THE STATES ON RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

STATE	FOR	AGAINST	DATE
1. Delaware	Unanimously		Dec. 7, 1787
2. Pennsylvania	43	23	Dec. 12, 1787
3. New Jersey	Unanimously		Dec. 18, 1787
4. Georgia	Unanimously		Jan. 2, 1788
5. Connecticut	128	40	Jan. 9, 1788
6. Massachusetts	187	168	Feb. 6, 1788
7. Maryland	63	11	Apr. 28, 1788
8. South Carolina	149	73	May 23, 1788
9. New Hampshire	57	46	June 21, 1788
10. Virginia	89	79	June 25, 1788
11. New York	30	27	July 26, 1788
12. North Carolina	194	77	Nov. 21, 1789
13. Rhode Island	34	32	May 29, 1790

[1] Ratified in 1920.

[2] Ratified in 1920.

Appendix C. *Interesting facts about our Presidents*

No.	Name	Length and Dates of Service	Age when Service Began	Year Born	Year of Death	Occupation or Vocation	State from which Elected	Burial Place
1	George Washington	Two terms, 1789–1797	57	1732	1799	Planter	Virginia	Mount Vernon, Va.
2	John Adams	One term, 1797–1801	61	1735	1826	Lawyer	Massachusetts	Quincy, Mass.
3	Thomas Jefferson	Two terms, 1801–1809	57	1743	1826	Planter	Virginia	Monticello, Va.
4	James Madison	Two terms, 1809–1817	57	1751	1836	Lawyer	Virginia	Montpelier, Va.
5	James Monroe	Two terms, 1817–1825	58	1758	1831	Lawyer	Virginia	Richmond, Va.
6	John Quincy Adams	One term, 1825–1829	57	1767	1848	Lawyer	Massachusetts	Quincy, Mass.
7	Andrew Jackson	Two terms, 1829–1837	61	1767	1845	Lawyer	Tennessee	Nashville, Tenn.
8	Martin Van Buren	One term, 1837–1841	54	1782	1862	Lawyer	New York	Kinderhook, N. Y.
9	William Henry Harrison	1 mo., March 4–April 4, 1841	68	1773	1841	Farmer	Ohio	North Bend, Ohio
10	John Tyler	3 yr., 11 mo., 1841–1845	51	1790	1862	Lawyer	Virginia	Richmond, Va.
11	James K. Polk	One term, 1845–1849	49	1795	1849	Lawyer	Tennessee	Nashville, Tenn.
12	Zachary Taylor	1 yr., 4 mo., 5 da., 1849–1850	64	1784	1850	Soldier	Louisiana	Springfield, Ky.
13	Millard Fillmore	2 yr., 7 mo., 25 da., 1850–1853	50	1800	1874	Lawyer	New York	Buffalo, N. Y.
14	Franklin Pierce	One term, 1853–1857	48	1804	1869	Lawyer	New Hampshire	Concord, N. H.
15	James Buchanan	One term, 1857–1861	65	1791	1868	Lawyer	Pennsylvania	Lancaster, Pa.
16	Abraham Lincoln	One term, 1 mo., 10 da., 1861–1865	52	1809	1865	Lawyer	Illinois	Springfield, Ill.
17	Andrew Johnson	3 yr., 10 mo., 20 da., 1865–1869	56	1808	1875	Tailor	Tennessee	Greenville, Tenn.
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Two terms, 1869–1877	46	1822	1885	Soldier	Illinois	New York, N. Y.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	One term, 1877–1881	54	1822	1893	Lawyer	Ohio	Fremont, Ohio
20	James A. Garfield	6 mo., 15 da., 1881	49	1831	1881	Lawyer	Ohio	Cleveland, Ohio
21	Chester A. Arthur	3 yr., 5 mo., 15 da., 1881–1885	50	1830	1886	Lawyer	New York	Albany, N. Y.
22	Grover Cleveland	One term, 1885–1889	47	1837	1908	Lawyer	New York	Princeton, N. J.
23	Benjamin Harrison	One term, 1889–1893	55	1833	1901	Lawyer	Indiana	Indianapolis, Ind.
24	Grover Cleveland	One term, 1893–1897	55	1837	1908	Lawyer	New York	Princeton, N. J.
25	William McKinley	4 yr., 6 mo., 10 da., 1897–1901	54	1843	1901	Lawyer	Ohio	Canton, Ohio
26	Theodore Roosevelt	7 yr., 5 mo , 18 da., 1901–1909	42	1858	1919	Author	New York	Oyster Bay, N. Y.
27	William H. Taft	One term, 1909–1913	51	1857	1930	Lawyer	Ohio	Arlington, Va.
28	Woodrow Wilson	Two terms, 1913–1921	56	1856	1924	Educator	New Jersey	Washington, D. C.
29	Warren G. Harding	2 yr., 4 mo., 29 da., 1921–1923	56	1865	1923	Editor	Ohio	Marion, Ohio
30	Calvin Coolidge	5 yr., 7 mo., 2 da., 1923–1929	51	1872	—	Lawyer	Massachusetts	
31	Herbert C. Hoover	Serving	54	1874	—	Engineer	California	

Appendix D. *Interesting Facts about the States*

	Name	Year of Admission	Area in Square Miles	Population in 1920	Well-Known Nickname	Officially Adopted or Commonly Accepted Flower	Motto
1	Alabama	1819	51,998	2,348,174	Cotton State	Goldenrod	Here we rest
2	Arizona	1912	113,956	334,162	Apache State	Sahuaro cactus	*Ditat Deus* (God enriches)
3	Arkansas	1836	53,335	1,752,204	Bear State	Apple blossom	*Regnant populi* (The people rule)
4	California	1850	158,297	3,426,861	Golden State	Golden poppy	*Eureka* (I have found it)
5	Colorado	1876	103,498	939,629	Centennial State	Columbine	*Nil sine numine* (Nothing without Providence)
6	Connecticut	1788	4,965	1,380,631	Nutmeg State	Mountain laurel	*Qui transtulit sustinet* (Who transplanted sustains)
7	Delaware	1787	2,370	223,003	Blue Hen State	Peach blossom	Liberty and independence
8	Florida	1845	58,666	968,470	Peninsula State	Orange blossom	In God we trust
9	Georgia	1788	59,265	2,895,832	Cracker State	Cherokee rose	Wisdom, justice, moderation
10	Idaho	1890	83,888	431,866	Gem State	Syringa	*Esto perpetua* (May it be perpetual)
11	Illinois	1818	56,665	6,485,280	Prairie or Sucker State	Wood violet	State sovereignty, national union
12	Indiana	1816	36,354	2,930,390	Hoosier State	Tulip poplar	No motto
13	Iowa	1846	56,147	2,404,021	Hawkeye State	Wild rose	Our liberties we prize and our rights we will maintain
14	Kansas	1861	82,158	1,769,257	Sunflower State	Sunflower	*Ad astra per aspera* (To the stars through difficulties)
15	Kentucky	1792	40,598	2,416,630	Blue Grass State	Trumpet vine	United we stand, divided we fall
16	Louisiana	1812	48,506	1,798,509	Pelican State	Magnolia	Union, justice, confidence
17	Maine	1820	33,040	768,014	Pine Tree State	Pine cone	*Dirigo* (I direct)
18	Maryland	1788	12,327	1,449,661	Old Line State	Black-eyed Susan	*Fatti maschii, parole femmine* (Deeds are men; words are women)
19	Massachusetts	1788	8,266	3,852,356	Bay State	Mayflower	*Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem* (By the sword she seeks repose settled under liberty)
20	Michigan	1837	57,980	3,668,412	Wolverine State	Apple blossom	*Si quaeris peninsulam amoenam, circumspice* (If you seek a delightful peninsula look about you)
21	Minnesota	1858	84,682	2,387,125	Gopher State	Moccasin flower	*L'étoile du nord* (Star of the north)
22	Mississippi	1817	46,856	1,790,618		Magnolia	*Virtute et armis* (By valor and arms)
23	Missouri	1821	69,420	3,404,055	Show Me State	Hawthorn	*Salus populi suprema lex esto* (Let the people's safety be the supreme law)

Appendix D. *Interesting Facts about the States* (Continued)

24	Montana	1889	146,997	548,889	Treasure State	Bitterroot	*Oro y plata* (Gold and silver)
25	Nebraska	1867	77,520	1,296,372	Cornhusker State	Goldenrod	Equality before the law
26	Nevada	1864	110,690	77,407	Silver State	Sagebrush	All for our country
27	New Hampshire	1788	9,341	443,083	Granite State	Purple lilac	(No motto)
28	New Jersey	1787	8,224	3,155,900	Garden State	Violet	Liberty and prosperity
29	New Mexico	1912	122,634	360,350	Sunshine State	Cactus	*Crescit eundo* (It increases as it advances)
30	New York	1788	49,204	10,385,227	Empire State	Rose	*Excelsior* (Higher)
31	North Carolina	1789	52,426	2,559,123	Old North State	Goldenrod	*Esse quam videri* (To be rather than to seem)
32	North Dakota	1889	70,837	646,872	Flickertail State	Wild prairie rose	Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable
33	Ohio	1803	41,040	5,759,394	Buckeye State	Scarlet carnation	*Imperium in imperio* (An empire within an empire)
34	Oklahoma	1907	70,057	2,028,283	Sooner State	Mistletoe	*Labor omnia vincit* (Labor conquers all things)
35	Oregon	1859	96,699	783,389	Beaver State	Oregon grape	The union
36	Pennsylvania	1787	45,126	8,720,017	Keystone State	(No choice)	Virtue, liberty, and independence
37	Rhode Island	1790	1,248	604,397	Little Rhody	Violet	Hope
38	South Carolina	1788	30,989	1,683,724	Palmetto State	Yellow jessamine	*Animis opibusque parati* (Ready in soul and resource), and *Dum spiro spero* (While I breathe I hope)
39	South Dakota	1889	77,615	636,547	Sunshine State	Pasque flower	Under God the people rule
40	Tennessee	1796	42,022	2,337,885	Volunteer State	Passion flower	Agriculture, commerce
41	Texas	1845	265,896	4,663,228	Lone Star State	Bluebonnet	No official motto; "Texas — one and indivisible" is sometimes used
42	Utah	1896	84,990	449,396	Deseret	Sego lily	Industry
43	Vermont	1791	9,564	352,428	Green Mountain State	Red clover	Freedom and unity
44	Virginia	1788	42,627	2,309,187	The Old Dominion	American dogwood	*Sic semper tyrannis* (Thus ever to tyrants)
45	Washington	1889	69,127	1,356,621	Evergreen State	Rhododendron	*Ai-ki* (By and by)
46	West Virginia	1863	24,170	1,463,701	The Panhandle State	Rhododendron	*Montani semper liberi* (Mountaineers are always free)
47	Wisconsin	1848	56,066	2,632,067	Badger State	Violet	Forward
48	Wyoming	1890	97,914	194,402	Equality State	Indian paintbrush	*Cedant arma togae* (Let arms yield to the gown)

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KEY. ă *as in* făt; ā *as in* fāte; à *as in* àsk; ä *as in* ärm; ą *as in* soſą; ĕ *as in* mĕt; ē *as in* mēte; ĭ *as in* ĭt; ī *as in* īce; ŏ *as in* nŏt; ō *as in* nōte; ô *as in* hôrse; oi *as in* oil; o͝o *as in* fo͝ot; o͞o *as in* fo͞od; ŭ *as in* ŭp; ū *as in* ūse; û *as in* ûrn; ų *as in* stirrųp; th *as in* bathe

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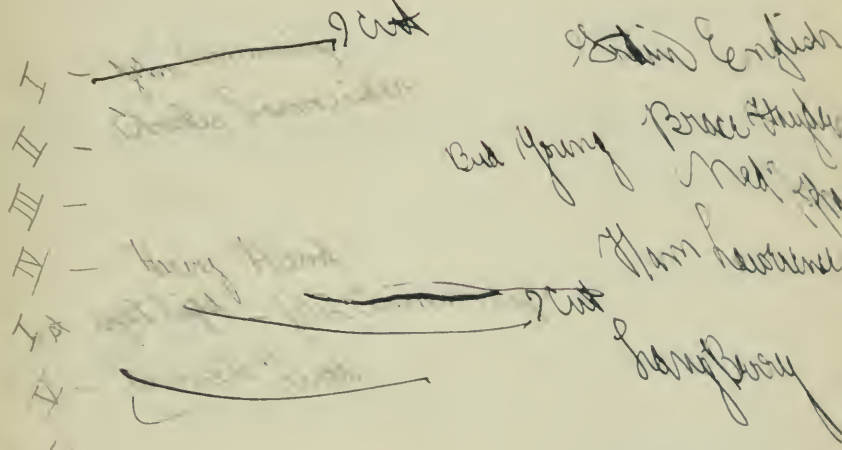


Let that break in my heart dear,
And I believed in you
But the nearest to "What you
told to me was I love you.

white dress (silk) (rather long) (snapa fitting) (red trimming)
broad red belt (leather) (patent or plain)
red jacket (rather small) (also silk)
white sandals
red or white hat (straw or felt)
sun tan stockings (motor flannel)
white gloves (kid)

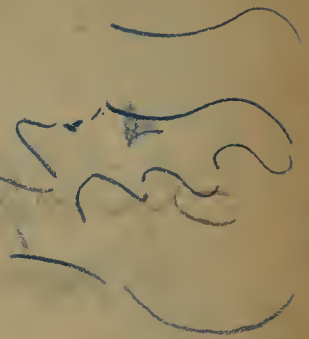
Mary Elizabeth Warren
Virginia Cottam
Ann Sperry
Helen Gorr
Jane Funk
Adele Rosenbaugh
Kitty Lawrence
Virginia Wilson
Louise Robertson
Ruth Reed
Frances Mary Cowe
Virginia Marcus
Catherine Cline
Audrey Jones
Margaret Cummings
Louise Henly
Betty Kuhlman
Mary Louise Keenan
Kathleen Thompson
Virginia Yokum
Wanda Jane Gunn
Wilma Richardson
Sheila Moffett
Pat Tum Suden
Cathryn Yvonne Spindle
Frances Patton
Mildred Boyd
Maxine Dowe

Forgetmenots are white and blue,
Forgetmenots are sweet like you.
One thing I ask as time goes by,
Forgetme not until you die.

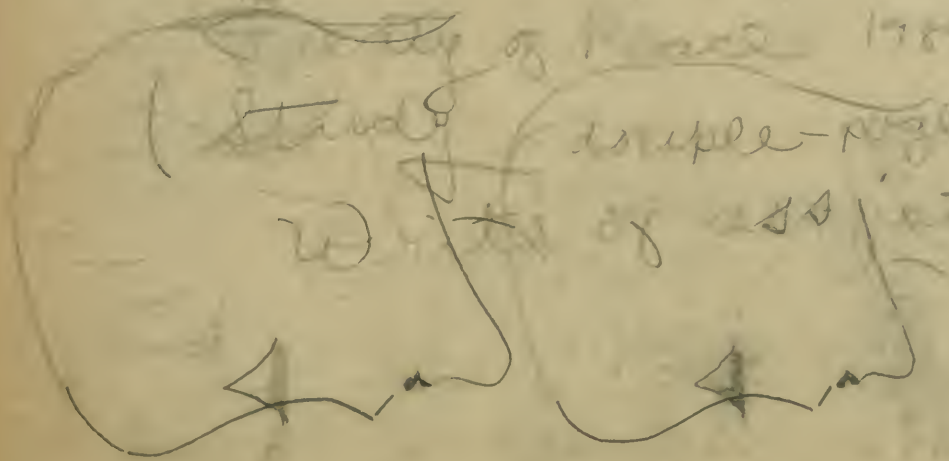
If this book should Chance to roam, not it's own and send it home.

How much do you [illegible] get

[illegible]



ask Virginia Coghlan if she wants to come down town with me.

or Helen Kuttz or Betty or
or Mary Louise Kiernan Kay. or Catherine
or Kitty Lawrence

Letters of Marque
Ordinance of 1856
Treaty of Paris 1783
(Stand) (simple-page map.
With of USA states)